The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MAY 8, 1902.

The Week.

President Roosevelt was quoted, the other day, as saying to a friend that he was trying to qualify himself for making speeches "on his feet," without the necessity of any preparation. It appears to have been a speech of this sort which he delivered on Friday night at the banquet of the Sons of the American Revolution, after his run over to Annapolis, earlier in the day, to talk to the graduating class of naval cadets. Mr. Roosevelt was full of enthusiasm for the flag, and, once started on that subject, there was no telling where an impulsive man, making an offhand speech, would bring up. It is therefore scarcely surprising that, after an allusion to "the islands of the Eastern seas," he should have remarked that "the republic has put up its flag in those islands, and the flag will stay there"; and again, after he had received much applause, "I think you make it evident that you intend that the flag shall 'stay put.'" This sort of slap-dash oratory is very different from the calm discussion of the Philippine problem in the President's message last December, when he wrote that "we do not desire to do for the islanders merely what has elsewhere been done for tropic peoples by even the best foreign governments," but that "we hope to do for them what has never before been done for any people of the tropics—to make them fit for self-government after the fashion of the really free nations."

We know that the President, counselled by Gov. Taft, was fearful of the consequences of collisions with the Moros, and went so far as to countermand the recent punitive expedition to Mindanao—though, unfortunately, too late. And the history of Spanish troubles in Mindanao for two centuries is before us as an open book, in which to read a warning against our present course. Naturally, Gen. Davis is sure that the "blow" he has now struck will bring the Moros to their knees. Perhaps it will; but we cannot forget the miserable dashing of similar hopes and similar predictions for three years past. President Roosevelt could not help sending his thanks and congratulations for a fight which he himself believed should never have taken place, but how topsy-turvy he makes our military standards appear in the eyes of the world! Time was when an affair like this in Mindanao would have been called a mere skirmish by Americans; now it is a great "victory," with eight men killed and forty-one wounded. What would a survivor of the battles of the Wilderness think of that? The President should remember that there is a foreign opinion in this business which we have to consider. Other World Powers do not get so excited when a few of their soldiers at the ends of the earth are killed in a trifling action. That is part of the regular business of Imperialism.

Even if the condemnation of barbarous warfare in the Philippines by the Imperialist press is somewhat belated, we welcome it, as we welcome everything that compels Americans to give attention to a subject to which too many of them have become increasingly indifferent. Silence, we know, is consistent with shame, and may be one of the signs of its existence; and the fact that only a few of the more unblushing or foolish newspapers have defended Gen. Smith's policy of extermination, shows what the general sentiment is. To allege the provocation which our soldiers had, is to set up a defence which President Roosevelt brushed aside in advance. To fall back on the miserable sophistry that "war is hell," is only another way of making out those who engage in that kind of war to be fiends. It is, besides, to offer an excuse for ourselves which we did not tolerate for an instant in the case of Spanish atrocities. That is our present moral humiliation in the eyes of the world. We made war on Spain four years ago for doing the very things of which we are now guilty ourselves. As the Chicago *News* pointedly observes, we are giving Spain as good reason to interfere with us on the ground of humanity as we had to interfere with her. Doubtless she would interfere if she were strong enough, and thought she could acquire some islands in the virtuous act.

An interesting side-light on conditions in the Philippines was cast in the address of the Chairman at the annual meeting in London of the Chartered Bank of India, Australia, and China. This institution has branches in the Philippines, and the stockholders were informed that the managers were "disappointed at the slow pacification of the Philippines, and consequent retardation in the revival of trade." The Chairman went on to observe that, "since the advent of the Americans, the volume of business has greatly shrunken." He had some hard things to say of the vacillation and bad management displayed by the United States in its Philippine possessions, and came to this conclusion: "In the absence of a national determination to retain and *exploit* the islands, we feel, as regards our branches there, that while there is so much uncertainty, we must be very circumspect, and endeavor to keep our funds as liquid as possible." Here is certainly a new and powerful argument for hurrying through the Republican bill to "exploit the islands." Gov. Taft says, to be sure, that it would be a bad thing to do, but English bankers are openly complaining that they cannot make any money unless we go on with our exploiting.

With the inauguration of the President of Cuba hardly two weeks off, none of our promises of tariff aid for the island are fulfilled, or seem likely to be. Washington dispatches represent the situation as almost completely deadlocked, with the Administration bill so tied up and delayed that, even if it ever passes in some mangled and ineffective form, it will be a practical defeat for the President, and a serious disappointment, if not a disaster, to the Cubans. The whole controversy would seem to have degenerated into a bitter quarrel between Havemeyer and Oxnard, with Congress simply standing by as a helpless spectator. The mortification of the President and Secretary Root must be extreme as they see their measure hung up and substantially abandoned. What is most depressing about the whole display is its exceeding pettiness. A Government complacently embarking on Imperial rule does not present an imposing figure when it finds itself at the mercy of men whose ideas are only those of a parish. Much of the official boasting we have already done about Cuba has been hollow enough, to the attentive ear; but if all our brave words and explicit pledges in connection with aiding the Cubans now fall to the ground, it will be impossible for even an unwinking Expansionist to glow with "honest pride" as he contemplates the spectacle.

The Senate Committee on Relations with Cuba had Mr. H. O. Havemeyer, President of the American Sugar Refining Company, or Trust, as a witness on Thursday, and obtained from him testimony on two entirely different questions, both of which are just now engaging general attention. The first and immediate subject embraced in the examination relates to the ownership of raw Cuban sugar by the Trust. The sole reason for having Mr. Havemeyer as a witness at all was to prove that the Trust owns, or has a mortgage on, the bulk of the crop now ready for shipment, so that any reduction of the duties would be a bonus to the Trust rather than to the Cubans. Mr. Havemeyer testified that, from January 1 to April 30, the total Cuban sugar purchased by the Trust had been 93,000 tons, of which about half had been

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shipped and the remainder was stored in Cuba. Those 93,000 tons, he said, represented all the interest of the so-called Trust in Cuban sugars, directly or indirectly. The Trust had made no advances on sugar held in Cuba. As compared with the purchases of Cuban sugar by the company in former years, this year's purchases are small. In the same period of 1901 it had bought 155,000 tons. About 50,000 tons of the sugar bought by the Trust this year still remained in Cuba, and this was about ten days' supply for its refineries. Here we note a discrepancy between Mr. Havemeyer's statement of the holdings of sugar in Cuba and that given by Gen. Wood on the 2d of April. According to the latter authority, the amount so held then was only 3,285 tons, but it is quite possible that the bulk of the Trust's holdings were purchased after April 2. Mr. Havemeyer said also that the Trust did not own any sugar plantations or lands in Cuba. It had had the intention at one time of acquiring such lands, but had not carried the intention into effect. Mr. Havemeyer gave a list of his private holdings in sugar factories in Cuba and in sugar lands.

Mr. Havemeyer was asked whether he did not make a very low price for sugar in the Missouri valley last summer, and he replied that he did; he had reduced it from 4 1-10 cents to 3½ cents per pound, and kept it at that price "until we recovered our trade." His reason for doing this was that the beet-sugar makers had sought to control the market by contracts ahead, which he considered "in restraint of trade," and consequently he reduced the price till he had recovered the trade. Then Senator Teller, with great simplicity, asked where the beet-sugar men were to sell their product, to which the witness made the unfeeling answer:

> "I don't know. That is their business, and they won't tell me, because they know that if they did I would get at them again. I do not propose that they shall control the trade; it is all that I can do to take care of the American Company's interests."

He added that he had no intention of driving the beet-sugar industry out of the country, but that he should fight to hold his own trade as long as there was a dollar in his company's treasury. Now if competition is the life of trade, Mr. Havemeyer was giving the country, or at all events, the people in the Missouri valley, the benefit of it. If the Sugar Trust is a bad thing *per se*, it could scarcely have been regarded as such in the places where it was putting down the price of sugar to 3½ cents per pound. It may be said that if the Trust should succeed in stopping the production of beet-sugar altogether, then it would be a real monopoly, and could extort any prices it liked for sugar. That does not follow, however, since Congress could at any time admit sugar from abroad, both raw and refined, free of duty. So the dangers of a monopoly in sugar are wholly imaginary, and we have the unwonted spectacle of a great Trust fighting for its life, and giving the country the benefits of the most unbridled competition at a time when the public is more agitated on the subject of monopolies than ever before.

The reply of the Northern Securities Company to the Attorney-General's suit was filed in Minnesota on Monday. Briefly summed up, it alleges that the group of capitalists named in the Government's bill does not own a majority of Northern Securities stock; that there are 1,300 separate holders; that no agreement exists for voting the stock in harmony; that rates on the railroads controlled have been lowered since the company was formed; that, in fact, the two railroads themselves have no arbitrary power over interstate rates; and that the Northern Securities was organized "merely to purchase the stock of those who wished to sell." An important point of the answer is its reference to the purchases by other railways of the stock of competing companies since the Anti-Trust Law of 1890 was enacted. The brief declares:

> "During the eleven years since the passage of that act, in many instances the stock of a competing railway company has been acquired by its competitor, or the shareholders thereof; such acquisition including many of the principal railways doing business throughout the country. This has been done without objection from any branch of the Government of the United States, and has invariably proven beneficial to the railway companies concerned and to the public."

We say this point of the answer is important, because it raises a consideration which even courts of justice often recognize. The question, what would follow if the decision in this case were to upset the validity of important and long-standing investments by such companies as the Pennsylvania, the Union Pacific, and the Southern, is, in the minds of conservative financiers, the most serious of all. The Attorney-General, foreseeing this argument in the answer, undertook to forestall it by a technical allegation of bad faith. The Northern Securities, he alleged, "is a mere depository, custodian, holder, and trustee" of the stocks in question; it was "organized solely to incorporate the pooling of the stocks," and "no consideration whatever has existed, or will exist, for the transfer, . . . other than the issue of the stock of the Northern Securities Company . . . in exchange therefor." This part of the bill has been recognized by all lawyers as the strategic point of Mr. Knox's move. That a general denial would be made to it, in urgent language, was expected; what adds some novel interest, however, is the defendant's further answer, that

> "The Northern Securities Company has not paid for all the stock of the Great Northern Company and of the Northern Pacific Company acquired by it in shares of its own stock, but, on the contrary, has expended upwards of $40,000,000 cash in the making of such purchases."

This is the first appearance of the above mysterious $40,000,000 in the case, and, as no details appear to accompany the statement cited, it would be premature to attempt any explanation now. We may observe, however, that the answer indicates that this question of cash purchase is not unlikely to be the centre of the legal battle-line. How far the Minnesota brief covers the dictum of the Supreme Court in the trans-Missouri case, that "the necessary effect" of a railway combination or agreement of the sort "is to restrain trade and commerce, no matter what the intent was" on the part of its authors, is a broader question.

Whether there is a Beef Trust or not —whether there was a valid excuse for the recent advance in the price of beef or not—the sudden slackening in the public demand for the article has paralyzed the cattle trade all over the West. From all quarters we hear that there is no sale for cattle, hogs, or sheep, and that the buyers and packers are telegraphing to their agents not to send any more till the yards are cleared of stock on hand. This is the fitting answer to the beef combine. The people of the United States have simply controlled their appetite for beef. They have chosen a different diet for the time being. In the multitude and variety of things offered for human consumption, it is not difficult for a family to reduce its consumption of beef one-half without going hungry or suffering much inconvenience. The result of such a change in the habits of the community is to throw back upon the hands of the Trust one-half of all the meats in the markets and in the railroad cars, and upon the drovers and ranchmen one-half of all the cattle *en route* to the packers—in short, to produce the condition of glut which the dispatches tell us exists in Chicago, Omaha, Kansas City, and Denver to-day. This lesson will be more salutary to the beef monopolists than forty lawsuits under the Sherman Anti-Trust Act. It may have the happier effect of teaching people to economize in the use of an expensive article of diet. It is said that a French family can live comfortably on the food that an American family wastes. While this is not universally true, there is a large substratum of fact in it.

Increases of wages in various trades during the past year have been shown in the reviews of the labor market on the 1st of May, published by newspapers in different parts of the country. Employment has also been much more nearly continuous than usual during the

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past twelvemonth. This means that more men have had work than is generally the case, and that many of those at work have received more than the average rate of pay. This shows how the business activity affects the laboring classes. At least, it shows one way in which that activity affects them. Many men who formerly could not find employment can now earn wages, and these are, of course, much better off than they were. As to those who used to have work and now receive more pay for it than formerly, a different question arises—Does the increase in the cost of what they buy exceed their gain in wages? If it does, they were better off on the smaller pay, when food and clothing also cost them less. As regards the class of salaried men who have permanent employment at the same rate of pay, year after year, we suppose there can be no question that a "business boom" is a bad thing for them. Hard times are really good times for the college professor who is sure of his place, because his fixed income brings him more of the comforts of life in such periods than when prices are high all around.

Mr. Bryan has intimated more than once of late that he would not be a candidate for the Presidential nomination in 1904. If he designed these announcements as "feelers," to test the sentiment of the Democratic party, he must have been impressed with the plain manifestations of relief at the prospect of his withdrawal from leadership. At any rate, he has apparently decided that his best policy is to renounce ambition for another nomination, and gave public notice of it at a banquet in Birmingham, Ala., on Saturday night:

"During his speech Mr. Bryan intimated that he would not again be a candidate for the Presidential nomination. In referring to the subject, he likened himself to Aaron, who, he said, assisted Moses in leading the children of Israel out of the wilderness by his public utterances. He said he was perfectly willing to let some other person take the part of Moses."

Where is the new Democratic Moses? That is the question which everybody naturally asks, and there would be no approach to agreement among those who should answer. It is worth while pointing out, however, that it has repeatedly happened that men have become national leaders who were hardly thought of as possible Presidential candidates two years and a half before the election. It is now May, 1902, and the next President will be chosen in November, 1904. In May, 1894, Mr. Bryan himself was serving his second term in the House of Representatives, but it is safe to say that not one human being, either in Congress or outside it, then dreamt of such a thing as his being the Democratic candidate for President in 1896, and becoming so much the master of the party organization that no other name than his would be mentioned in the convention of 1900.

The revised budget adopted by the Board of Estimate and Apportionment last week is undoubtedly at first sight a disappointment to most people who contributed to the overthrow of Tammany last fall. The general impression was that there had been such extravagance under Mayor Van Wyck that a reform Administration might save millions without impairing the efficiency of the government. To find that the revised budget now adopted, after careful study, aggregates $98,619,600, against the $97,974,541 estimated by Tammany during the campaign last fall, is a shock to all except the small number of persons who have kept close track of developments in the various departments since the beginning of the year. The truth is, that the public expected too much. The estimates made by Tammany last fall constituted what may properly be called a "trick" budget, designed to deceive the people during the campaign, and involving the necessity of increases this spring, whoever might be in power. It is necessary to appropriate $500,000 now to meet deficiencies which existed last fall, but which were not provided for then. Moreover, Tammany had allowed such neglect and inefficiency in many departments that decent service involved heavy expenditures to put the plant in good condition, as in the cleaning of the streets, or to furnish proper food and care for the city's wards, as in the Department of Charities. That $100,000 more must be expended on supplies for this latter department than Tammany granted means simply that common humanity has supplanted brutal methods in the support of thousands of helpless people.

It is probably a relief to all concerned, including the Italians, that the King's pardon sends the imprisoned officers of the United States cruiser *Chicago* back to their ship. The Navy Department must feel that the proper response to this act of royal clemency is a court-martial of the offenders as prompt and thorough as may be. At this court-martial, whatever may be said in apology for commissioned officers who get into a drunken fight in a foreign city, will undoubtedly be brought forward. For the present we have to choose between dispatches which differ widely in their contents, but which all make out a case highly discreditable to officers wearing the uniform of the United States navy. We trust that the uglier features reported of this drunkard's progress in a friendly port—the more odious because among the Italians intoxication is almost unheard of—will turn out to be untrue; enough will remain, we may be sure, to bring exemplary punishment upon officers who so far forgot the traditions of the American navy. In this matter the navy, let us hope, will show that it is an efficient guardian of its own honor.

The Irish question is again thrust upon Parliament just at the time when the need of relieving that body from the petty details of local legislation is more keenly felt than ever. Mr. Balfour has at last got his amended rules through the Commons, but, even with their aid in expediting business, he cannot see his way to avoid that hated thing—an autumn session. Even leaving out controverted political measures, like the Education Bill, such an increasing mass of legislation for the constituent parts of the United Kingdom is pressed upon Parliament that there are fresh demands for some plan to get rid of it. "Devolution of Imperial powers" is the favorite name for the method of avoiding a congestion of business at Westminster. Lord Rosebery declared himself for that euphemism in the very speech in which he forswore Irish Home Rule. The latter may yet come, smelling as sweet, under some other name. One can easily imagine Mr. Balfour, or, with more difficulty, Mr. Chamberlain, consenting to do under the guise of "devolution" what they would bitterly oppose if dubbed Home Rule. In any case, it is universally agreed that something must soon be done to save Parliament from breaking down under the pressure of local business, which could be so much better attended to by the localities concerned.

The profound sympathy which is felt for the young Queen of Holland is heightened by many considerations—her gracious personality, her youth, and the too fleeting romance of her marriage to a German princeling. The fact that her untimely death would leave the succession to the throne of the Netherlands in grave doubt, gives also an unusual political significance to the desperate hazard of life and death in which she now lies. With her the Dutch line of Nassau is extinct, and the crown reverts to collateral heirs so distantly related to the royal line that they could arouse no enthusiasm among the Dutch. Furthermore, these distant claimants, all Germans, would surely be distasteful to the Netherlanders; for, first, Germany is suspected, not without cause, of ulterior designs upon Holland, and next, the Prince Consort has certainly, by his personal actions, rather heightened than lessened an already existing prejudice against the Germans. If it were fifty years earlier, the fixing of the succession would afford a very pretty chance for a quarrel among the Powers. As it is, Parliament is perfectly capable of choosing a king among the numerous remote claimants; in which case no Prussian would be likely to succeed.

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"HYSTERIA" IN 1898 AND NOW.

Col. C. A. Woodruff, speaking on Saturday in defence of Gen. Smith before the court-martial in Manila, alluded to "the hysterical public opinion" which had brought about the trial of "this gray, wounded, victorious general." It was in evidence that the victorious general had given orders to take no prisoners, to kill "everything over ten," and to make Samar a howling wilderness; but to object to such measures was mere "sentiment," Col. Woodruff asserted, and he added that, though sentiment is an "excellent thing," there is "no place for it in war."

Now this may be sound military doctrine, on general principles. On such a defence Napoleon might have fallen back, or the Duke of Alva, or Gen. Weyler; but no American can possibly make use of it. Our mouths are stopped. As a nation we solemnly denied the validity of such a defence of cruelty in warfare, and appealed to the arbitrament of the sword in protest against it. We went to war with Spain for conducting war cruelly. We did not sneer at "sentiment" in 1897 and 1898, when stories of Spanish inhumanity and torture roused our indignation. Not for a moment did we admit that it was "hysteria" which set the country aflame with noble rage at the reported Spanish atrocities in Cuba and in the Philippines. No, that was the generous uprising of a humane people to put an end to unspeakable abominations. Talk not to us of military necessity. Urge no precedents. We would listen to none of them, but went to war calling men and angels to witness that our motives were of the purest, and that we resorted to arms only because our outraged natures could no longer endure the sight of miserable beings tortured and massacred by a ruthless soldiery.

It is this great fact, within the memory of all, which puts us out of court when we begin to philosophize about the necessary evils of war. We deliberately renounced any such defence for ourselves when we refused to accept it for those with whom we were in controversy. In demanding a better standard of others, we bound ourselves to abide by it. With what judgment we judged the Spaniards in 1898, it must be meted to us again in 1902. Not for us are the apologies to be drawn from that most comfortable apothegm, "War is hell"; we put them all aside; we would hearken to no palliation, and vowed to high heaven that the conduct we complained of had no justification except on the principles of the devil. This is what makes it so impossible for us to come into court to-day with clean hands. Our own plea we ourselves have derided in advance.

Those Republican newspapers which are slowly plucking up courage to excuse the inhumanities of our war in the Philippines, take much satisfaction in reproducing the worst orders ever issued by Northern generals in the civil war. They recall what Sheridan did in the Valley of the Shenandoah, what black ruin attended Sherman's march through Georgia, and quote with delight Gen. G. M. Dodge's saying of three counties in Tennessee that "I believe our policy is to burn up these counties," together with Gen. Halleck's announced determination to "punish all whom I can catch, although I have no doubt there will be a newspaper howl against me as a bloodthirsty monster." To all which, we have to say that it does not in the least break the force of our present self-condemnation. These very examples from our own civil war were cited in 1898 as a reason why we should not madly rush into conflict with Spain for similar bloody incidents of war, but no one would pay the slightest attention. All the citation of precedents, even out of our own history, was then furiously brushed aside. It will as little avail us now.

Furthermore, we find a strange fatuity, or an ironic stroke of fate, in this reopening of the wounds of the South. The Spanish war, we know, wrought one of its many blessings in reuniting the severed sections of our country. The blue and the gray side by side in Cuba made the past forgotten, and a true union of hearts resulted. After all that, there is something sardonic in this latest sequel of the Spanish war. Northern newspapers are admitting, even boasting, that the worst grievances of the South against the Federal armies were well founded. "Yes," they are saying, "we harried you and burned you and shot down combatants without distinction of sex, as Gen. Halleck put it. As Gen. Weyler treated the Cuban rebels, and as Gen. Arolas used fire and sword in the Philippines, so did our armies ravage the South." Thus has the providential Spanish war obliterated all ill feeling between North and South!

Above and beyond all this, we have, fortunately, in the official utterance of President Roosevelt a moral and military standard which discomfits all the apologists for cruelty. The President of the United States, Commander-in-Chief of all our armies, has declared that torture and massacre will not be tolerated under the American flag. No matter what the provocation, that offence will not go unpunished. This Executive deliverance is what clipped the periods of Senator Lodge's oratory on Monday. He undertook to tell the story of Filipino cruelty. That this has been extreme we do not doubt, though Lodge had nothing but the vaguest allegations to make. But this has nothing to do with the case, and all such limping defences as Lodge's are swept out of existence by the single broad assertion of the President: "Great as the provocation has been in dealing with foes who habitually resort to treachery, murder, and torture against our men, *nothing can justify or will be held to justify the use of torture or inhuman conduct of any kind* on the part of the American Army." Senator Lodge seemed to be dimly aware that his entire speech was snuffed out in advance by that one sentence. That is the reason, perhaps, why he made his oration a specimen of smoking flax so easy to quench.

THE PESKY ANTI-IMPERIALIST.

It is most provoking, we know, for Anti-Imperialists to pretend that they are still alive. They have been killed so often. After 1899 we were to hear no more of them. In 1900 they were again pronounced dead, although, like the obstinate Irishman, they continued to protest that, if they were dead, they were not conscious of it. Last year the slain were slaughtered once more, and that time buried as well, with all due ceremony. Yet the impudent creatures have resumed activity during the past few months just as if their epitaphs had not been composed again and again.

And the worst of it is that they seem to have acquired a strange power over the public and over Government. What the lonely and ridiculous Anti-Imperialist was whispering in the closet, a year ago, thousands are now shouting from the housetops. The impossible measures which the absurd fellow was demanding have been adopted by the President of the United States, and have even compelled the approval of Congress. When Gen. Funston, for example, began his blethering, it was the foolish Anti-Imperialists who said that the President ought to reprimand and silence him, and how the jeers arose! That was just like the silly old impracticables—attacking a popular hero. But presently the said hero had a gag forcibly inserted between his teeth by Executive order, just as if the Anti-Imperialists had been right about it from the beginning. It is not necessary to recall the triumphs of the mistaken beings in the whole matter of the Philippine investigation and of courts-martial for the implicated officers. Enough to say that, in the entire affair, the Administration and Congress have acted on the demand and as if by the advice of that handful of out-of-date and laughable persons, the Anti-Imperialists.

The phenomenon occasions much scratching of the Imperialist head. How to account for it? Imperialist editors and statesmen are puzzled. Their despised and helpless opponents are actually swaying the policy of the Government! It is absurd, of course, really quite preposterous, but there stands the fact. It is all very fine, and it's lots of fun, to make merry at the expense of

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wrong-headed people who get in the way of national progress, and hope to turn back the hands on the dial of evolution, but how if they succeed? Prodigiously unreasonable, it goes without saying, and truly disgusting to the well-ordered mind of the Imperialist; but what is the explanation?

Very simple, cocksure brothers of the Empire, we assure you. All you have to do is to remember that Anti-Imperialism is only another name for old-fashioned Americanism, and all will be clear to you. An American who has a settled body of convictions, as to which he is ready to speak out at a moment's notice, and which he is ready to apply promptly and sharply to every fresh set of circumstances that turns up; who with his inherited ideas has an inherited courage, an inherited love of equality and of justice; who has also a sense of humor which cannot be imposed upon by Uncle Sam masquerading in Louis Quatorze garments—why, he is a natural born Anti-Imperialist, and it is simply his Americanism that makes him think and act as he does.

We have had some beautiful illustrations of this truth in the weeks last past. What is the true American way of dealing with a rampant military banqueteer like Funston? Or with news from the Philippines that makes the blood curdle? It is to say on the spot what you think, is it not? Well, that is exactly what the Anti-Imperialists did. It was the other sort who looked at each other in wild surmise, wondered if they dared say anything at all, kept still until shame finally drove them into mumbling speech, and acted in all ways as if they were the terrified and hunted minority afraid to say their souls were their own. Is that Imperialism? We do not know. We only know that it is not Americanism, and that in this case, as so many times before, the citizens who first found their voices, who first spoke out their honest indignation and made their righteous demands, were the ones to move public opinion and to influence official action, while the palterers and the apologizers had to come shamefacedly after.

And it is, too, the "ancient humor," as well as the elder stanchness, of true Americanism that has been coming to its own in the recent successes of the Anti-Imperialist cause. What are our anxious and solemn Imperialists thinking of when they imagine that Uncle Sam has forgotten how to take a joke? They gather about the old gentleman with attentive flatteries, and keep serious faces when he nervously asks them how his ermine hangs, and if his crown is on straight. All the while he would much prefer to have them laugh at him openly and tell him not to be a durn fool. Mark Twain is showing us to-day how true is his descent in the right line of American humor by his continued satires on the airs and graces of our Imperialists. He speaks in the very voice, if not in the numbers, of Hosea Biglow, and with all his sarcasm at the expense of the high and mighty ones who think to arrange all matters of statesmanship and of national policy without consulting the inquisitive democrat of field and shop—

"Wal, it's a marcy we've gut folks to tell us
The rights an' the wrongs o' these matters, I vow."

This, in a word, is what makes the Anti-Imperialist so pesky—he is American to the core. He has fed on his country's tradition. With him, as with Gov. Andrew and with Lincoln, justice does not depend upon the color of a man's skin. He cannot distinguish between the flag and the principles which first set the flag flying. With John Quincy Adams he believes that the Declaration of Independence is the very Alcoran of American political doctrine. And he does not in the least mind being in a minority. He remembers that the history of success is the history of minorities. Sneers and jeers are alike indifferent to him, and when the Red Slayer thinks to have made an end of him, he turns and passes and comes again. He is content to bide his time, knowing that the road of popular persuasion is a long one, though sure in the end, and that republics cannot march to their goal with "the decisiveness and consistency of despotism." Withal, he knows how to shoot a dart of ridicule at Imperialist folly as it flies, and derives amusement as well as hope from Uncle Sam's humorous appreciation of his present plight. This might well be caricatured to-day, as we have heard it suggested, by a picture of your Uncle ruefully contemplating his Philippine extremities, enormously swollen by ulcers and boils, and saying with whimsical melancholy, "And they call this expansion!"

REFORMERS AND APPEARANCES.

Another version of President Roosevelt's reason for giving an avowed spoilsman a lucrative Federal office is furnished in a Washington dispatch to the *Times*. It is that Mr. Roosevelt "liked" Clarkson. He made him Surveyor of the Port because "he knew him to be a big, strong man." It was not a case of yielding to "importunity"; the President "was as much pleased with the idea of making Clarkson Surveyor as were any of Clarkson's Iowa friends." This explanation sounds very probable. It puts the Clarkson appointment in line with that of Murray and Daniels—also men whom the President knew to be big and strong. Very likely, he is in the habit of calling the new Surveyor "Jim," just as he calls the others "Joe" and "Ben." He could not, of course, overlook the fact that Ben had omitted to mention that he was an ex-convict; but it would obviously be drawing it quite too fine for an admirer of big and strong men to refuse to appoint one of them to office on account of some miserable little technicality like having previously been denounced by Mr. Roosevelt himself as hostile to decent government.

Now we are quite ready to believe that President Roosevelt's intentions, in all this matter of the civil service, are of the best. We know that he has fought and is still fighting the spoilsmen of his party. His general standards of appointment are undoubtedly high. But what he seems to forget is the fact that good intentions cannot excuse a reformer for doing things which appear precisely like the acts of a spoilsman, and that to justify himself by giving exactly the explanation which a corruptionist would advance is only, as Disraeli said of a "vindication" offered by Sir Robert Peel, "an aggravated avowal of the offence of which he was accused."

Mr. Roosevelt did not, as Civil-Service Commissioner, fight with wild beasts at Ephesus without learning that one of the first excuses to leap to the lips of Senators or Representatives, urging unfit appointments, is that they "know" and "like" the candidates. Perhaps the big and strong men have not been, as such, so high in favor with valetudinarian Senators as they are with the athletic President; but if personal acquaintance and liking are sufficient, why, the worst ward-worker that Mr. Roosevelt ever barred from office was as warmly vouched for as Clarkson. Senator Hanna, for example, knows and likes Rathbone. The President cannot be more emphatic about Joe Murray than Hanna is about his Ohio lieutenant, temporarily in controversy with Cuban officers of justice. The very language used by Mr. Roosevelt about *his* man is employed by spoils-mongering Senators to describe the virtues of *their* men. "Why, I know Rathbone," says Hanna, "and a cracking good fellow he is." "I know Sayler," says Quay of his discredited Consul, "and a truer man never overcharged the State Treasury." No one would be swifter than the President to see the hollowness of such a reason for naming unfit men. But is not his own reason in the Clarkson and Murray cases practically the same? It will not do for him indignantly to assert his good intentions. Hanna and Quay would lay their hands on their hearts and profess only devotion to the public good. The one question is as to the merit and fitness of the nominee; and that can no more be settled by warm assurances from the White House than from the Senate chamber.

The sum of our complaint is, that there are well-settled principles and practices which reformers have contended for when spoilsmen were in office, and which cannot be waived without scandal by reformers when they themselves get into office. Take the appointment of Murray to succeed Commissioner Mc-

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Sweeney. Saying nothing now about the propriety of removing the latter, why should the office have been at once taken from the competitive class? Apparently, it was in order to make it certain that Murray could get it. His ability to pass an examination was doubtful, and so the examination was abolished for his benefit. Is it any excuse for this to say that the President had summered and wintered with this man, and knew him to be a worthy fellow, even if illiterate? We think not. Imagine what Civil-Service Commissioner Roosevelt would have said of such a proceeding by President Cleveland. He would have asked what the rules were for, and why the classified service existed at all, if an executive order were to be allowed thus to break down the system for the sake of doing a personal favor.

It is a common temptation of reformers in office to take their own good character and excellent purposes as an excuse for doing what they would not for a moment tolerate in another. They forget the importance of appearances in such matters. They think that, being good men in office, they can override safeguards which were devised to stay the hands of bad officials. Thus their sole defence is, "The others were scoundrels, but we are virtuous." But that is a highly perilous defence. The public will not accept it. If the rules and the methods and the standards which have been loudly advocated in the name of reform, are suspended or abandoned by reformers as soon as they get office, people will say, and they cannot be blamed for saying, that reform stands convicted of being either impracticable or insincere. None of the reasons of state alleged will suffice with this out-of-door public. When it sees a President allowing in himself the thing that he condemned in another, and hears him speak of the considerations that have led him to change his opinion and vary his practice, it will ask with Junius, "My Lord, is this the wisdom of a great statesman, or the ominous oscillation of a pendulum?"

THE BANKS AND THE TRUST COMPANIES.

The New York Clearing-house last week made public certain resolutions to the effect that the trust companies, being direct competitors of the banks, ought to submit to some of the bank requirements in the matter of cash reserves. To understand this move, a bit of historical retrospect is needed. Every reader of financial news is aware that the organization of trust companies has been as characteristic an incident of the last five years as the formation of the industrial Trusts. Taking the State of New York alone, the official records show that on January 1, 1898, there were incorporated 44 trust companies, with total resources of $483,739,925. At the beginning of 1902, the number of these institutions had risen to 62, and their resources to $969,393,644. The name applied to these credit institutions describes their origin. The law of 1887, under which most of them are chartered, empowers them "to act as fiscal or transfer agent" of States, municipalities, or corporations; "to receive deposits of trust moneys"; "to accept trusts from and execute trusts" in behalf of married women with a separate property, of beneficiaries under bequests, and of lunatics and other incompetents. In other words, the trust company undertook to provide, through a corporation, the services heretofore rendered by individual executors and trustees. The law was wise and necessary; it met a very urgent need.

It was not contemplated by the authors of the law that these corporations should so utilize their powers as to engage in the business of deposit banks. This is one reason why the statute placed on them virtually none of the usual bank restrictions. They might lend on real estate, which a bank is not allowed to do; the reason being that mortgages may be very proper investments for executors or trustees. They were not required to keep any cash reserve, whereas the State or national bank must hold from 7 to 25 per cent. Here, too, the reason was that to require a portion of a trust fund to be kept in idleness would be folly. But the law, as it happened, was extremely broad. Not only, on the one hand, were the companies empowered "to loan money on real or personal securities," and "to purchase, invest in, and sell stocks, bills of exchange, bonds and mortgages, and other securities"; but they were authorized, on the other, "to take, accept, and execute any and all such trusts and powers, of whatever nature or description, as may be conferred" upon them. Clearly enough, the opening of a simple deposit account, subject to demand, was the conferring of a trust or power. On the basis of this clause the trust companies have built up their general banking business, which now occupies the greater part of their activities. The companies, having sources of profit not open to an ordinary deposit bank, not being hampered with reserve requirements, and falling on a period when the community was blessed with an abundant surplus, were quick to recognize their legitimate opportunity. They offered to depositors, to whom as a rule a bank paid nothing, 2 per cent. or more in interest on current accounts. As a perfectly natural result, the deposits of the New York companies outside of simple trust accounts, rose from $198,229,029 in January, 1898, to $440,718,602 the opening of 1902.

The position of the banks, as reflected in the recent Clearing-house resolutions, directly raises two questions: First, whether, if the legal requirement of a cash reserve is right in the case of banks, the trust companies should be allowed to dispense with it; second, whether the banks are fairly treated by a law allowing competitors to do the business of banks without the bank restrictions. The resolutions, we should suppose, are tentative, and for the present will do little more than bring up the subject for practical discussion. No banker contemplates such a thing as the instant recall of $25,000,000 cash by the trust companies from the banks, to use as a trust company reserve. We regard it, nevertheless, as highly important that the question should have been raised in exactly this way. The existing situation has all along seemed to us anomalous. It is not that the trust companies have been misusing the opportunities of the law, but that no safe guarantee has been in force that they might not do so. It is well understood that the companies, though keeping virtually no cash in their vaults, still hold a reasonable sum deposited on demand in banks. But this precaution is purely voluntary. There is also a rather interesting question as to how far a reserve entirely redeposited in bank would meet the needs of a crisis such as that of July, 1893. Every one knows what figure was then cut by New York deposits owned by Western banks. Bankers are equally aware what would have happened then to deposits of savings-banks with Clearing-house institutions, but for the "sixty-day notice" privilege. There is, of course, not the slightest early possibility of another 1893, with its run on depository institutions. But in matters of this sort we should be building for the future.

The Clearing-house resolutions suggest a possible demand for the maintenance of sufficient reserves in the trust companies' own vaults. The only right to make such a demand, and the only power to enforce it, rests in the Clearing-house's grant of its own check-clearing facilities. To the trust companies these facilities are very essential. Possibly they could dispense with them if the banks were to make really unjust demands. If, then, the bank position is to be sustained, it can only be because of its reasonableness. At all events, a situation admittedly exists which needs reform, and the alternative to reform through the Clearing-house will probably be reform through Albany. We are aware that the matter is perplexing, and that a right position cannot be reached in a single day. We admit, also, that what the trust companies now do, in depositing all their cash reserve with the banks, is exactly what the joint-stock banks of London do with the Bank of England. But the Bank of England is a quasi-

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public institution; it has some special privileges of its own, and it recognizes its peculiar responsibilities by maintaining in cash some 40 or 50 per cent. against deposits. The New York banks allege that they cannot afford to make any such provision, and that they cannot rightly be asked to do it when aggressive competitors would be the beneficiaries. This is a highly interesting problem, and one, we believe, quite novel for this country. Our hope is that the trust company managers, who are large-minded and competent financiers, will themselves lend a hand to its right solution.

THE FREE-LECTURE MOVEMENT.

The annual dinner on Thursday evening of those especially interested in the free lecture courses given in the various boroughs of New York, under the auspices of the Board of Education, calls attention to a movement for popular instruction and entertainment which is of the first importance to the city. So quietly has this enterprise been conducted, and so seldom has it challenged public attention, that few people understand the dimensions which it has reached or appreciate the significance of its work.

The schoolhouses used to be closed every evening in the week. In the neighborhood of every building live men and women who "have nothing to do evenings," and who might be attracted to meetings in the schoolhouses if no admission fee were charged. It was believed that people could be found who would be willing to give evening lectures in these buildings for nominal compensation, so that the expense need not be much more than the cost of lighting. Dr. Henry M. Leipziger persuaded the Board of Education to try the experiment in a modest way, thirteen years ago, and the hopes of its projectors were soon justified. From half a dozen schoolhouses, the first year, the scope of the movement has spread until during the past season there have been more than one hundred places—schoolrooms, rented rooms, and halls, the use of which was given by the owners without charge—where systematic courses were furnished, aggregating three thousand lectures, which were attended by more than 900,000 people. The experiment was begun in the old city of New York—the present Borough of Manhattan—but it has been extended so that now every part of Greater New York shares its advantages. The city Charter expressly confers upon the Board of Education the power "to maintain free lectures and courses of instruction for the people of the city of New York." Every year the sum appropriated for this purpose is increased, and no occasion for criticism upon its expenditure has arisen.

The movement is primarily for the education of adults. Children are admitted to these lectures, which are, however, designed chiefly to broaden the interests of those who are beyond the school age, and whose lives are given to monotonous labor. The aim is to bring such people into touch with the principles of science and its recent discoveries, with the results of travel, and with the delights of music, literature, and art. There are elementary courses, designed to give information in a pleasing way, and others whose sole purpose is to follow a definite line of study. Attention is paid to the tastes and preferences found to predominate in particular localities, and it has been found that instruction is desired as much as entertainment. Courses of lectures are arranged in many centres systematically: at one, for example, fifty lectures on history and literature; at another, every Saturday night a lecture on some subject in natural science; at a third, subjects relating to education. A course on political history draws audiences composed almost entirely of men; at one on music or art women usually predominate. Lecturers note the same faces among their hearers week after week, and each year there is an increasing number of those who show an earnest desire to study a subject thoroughly.

The interest of the audiences is shown not only by the steady increase in the attendance, but by the voluntary expressions of delight which are constantly received by those in charge of the movement. Some of the letters from which Dr. Leipziger read extracts last week were almost pathetic in the display of gratitude. "The majority of us," wrote one, "know nothing but paved streets and brick walls. Nature stands at our doors, but we know nothing of her. These lectures give us instruction and mental exhilaration." Another, who has attended forty lectures since the season opened last fall, writes: "A busy and often very tired woman, unable to spare much time or sight for reading, gives thanks for the pleasure and comfort I have enjoyed through this means of instruction. I cannot adequately express my feelings." A third tells how husband and wife help each other to the benefit of two courses, the mother looking after the three small children on Monday evenings, and the father taking his turn on Thursday evenings.

The broadening influences of this movement are experienced in many directions. With this new opportunity for the teacher to reach the community about the schoolhouse, it becomes important that the teacher should be a person able to address an audience of adults. With the schoolhouse attracting grown people in the evening, it is essential that the building should contain a place of meeting better suited for men and women than the benches of the ordinary room, and the Committee on Lectures has wisely recommended to the Building Committee that in all buildings hereafter to be erected by the Board of Education provision should be made for adult education, and that an auditorium with proper seats for adults should be a feature of every such structure.

Dr. Leipziger offered the following practical recommendation:

> "Why not carry this conception of the utilization of the schoolhouse even a little further? You may walk in portions of our city where block after block consists of tenement-houses, many of these occupied by hundreds of human beings. Little that is sightly attracts the eye, and yet in the midst of one of these unsightly blocks one comes upon a splendid school building whose doors are closed. It is Sunday. The authorities of this city are now considering the proper means of grappling with the Excise Law—how to recognize the demands of human nature and obedience to public betterment. You close the saloon. Where shall the youth of the city in these crowded districts gather? Why should not the schoolhouse be open on Sunday afternoon, and people gather in its main hall to listen to an uplifting lecture of a biographical, historical, or musical nature? Would not such a use of our school buildings be justified?"

It cannot be denied that this is a perfectly feasible way of making a large contribution to the solution of the Sunday problem.

THE COUNTESS OF ALBANY.

PARIS, April 25, 1902.

The name of the Countess of Albany belongs to history in virtue of her marriage with Charles Edward, the Pretender. It belongs to literature on account of her liaison with Alfieri. For these reasons she has attracted the attention of many writers and become the subject of several books. We will cite only 'Die Gräfin von Albany,' by Alfred von Reumont (Berlin, 1860), the 'Comtesse d'Albany,' by Saint-René Taillandier (1862). Sainte-Beuve traced a portrait of her in his 'Nouveaux Lundis.' We must cite also the 'Countess of Albany,' by Vernon Lee, published in London in 1884, and the articles of Mrs. Tomei Finamore on "La Contessa di Albany e il suo Carteggio Senese" in the *Rivista Abruzzesa di Scienze e Lettere* (1892). I have before me a huge volume of 721 pages, just published by a new contributor, M. Léon Pélissier, professor of history at the University of Montpellier. M. Pélissier belongs visibly to the new historical "documentary" school. Anything, to the adepts of this school, seems valuable as a document; at the head of his title-page he writes: "Materials to serve for the history of a woman and of a society." He dedicates his work to another documentary historian, M. Frédéric Masson, to whom he gives the singular title of "Doctor in Napoleonic Sciences."

The volume is entirely made up of letters written to the Countess of Albany by her numerous correspondents from the year 1806 to the year 1824, which, since 1824, have been in the Library at Montpellier. After the death of Alfieri in 1803, the Countess of Albany replaced him with François Xavier Fabre, a painter who was already nearly fifty years old, a native of Montpellier; and after the death of the Countess, he gave to his birthplace his own collection of pictures, as well as the united

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collections, pictures and papers, of his predecessor Alfieri and their common friend the Countess of Albany. Alfieri's papers have already formed the subject of a complete inventory, made by Mazzatinti (1890); Libri once made a very summary inventory of the papers of Mme. d'Albany and of Fabre. M. Pélissier gives us now three hundred and fifty-nine letters written to Madame d'Albany by more than ninety correspondents. With few exceptions, these letters are posterior to the death of Alfieri, and are dated from 1803 to 1824, during the quietest period of her life. This collection is only a part of several hundred letters preserved at Montpellier; but among them many have been found of too little interest for publication.

M. Pélissier has not reproduced the letters of some illustrious persons, published already by Reumont, such as those of Charles Edward, of Gustavus III., of Pius VI., of Madame du Bocage, of Joséphine Bonaparte, of Paul Louis Courier, of the Duchess of Devonshire, and of others. He has abstained also from repeating the letters of Sismondi and Bonstetten given by Saint-René Taillandier. He has manifested the same scruple with regard to the Italian writers. This scruple, perhaps carried to excess, has deprived his work of a great part of the remaining interest which attaches to the Countess of Albany. He has taken the plums out of his own pudding.

The letters published by M. Pélissier are all printed textually, in unabridged form. "In order," he says justly, "to understand the spirit of a time, nothing is equal to the direct contact, to the brutal effect, of a document." What will strike the reader at once is the cosmopolitan character of the correspondence. "All Europe," says M. Pélissier, "went through the drawing-room of the Countess of Albany, who exercised at Florence a sort of intellectual, literary, and worldly royalty." "The title of Queen of England," he adds in a note, "which she preserved in such a singular manner, certainly helped to confer on her this domination over people and to make her believe in it." Another characteristic of this voluminous correspondence is its incoherence. The personality of Madame d'Albany was not so commanding that she could remain always the principal character in the letters of her correspondents. They generally speak less of her than of passing events and of their own interests. "Chosen, as they were, rather promiscuously in the various groups with which she mingled in Paris and in Florence, she does not seem to have cared to establish any ties between them."

The final characteristic of the correspondence is, some exceptions made, the intellectual mediocrity of the authors. This candid avowal might perhaps be turned against M. Pélissier, and he might be asked why he took so much trouble to bring to light letters which he finds devoid of interest. He would answer you that the documentary school to which he belongs has its own rules; that even the mediocrity of the familiar friends of the Countess of Albany is a trait which must be remembered by those who wish to appreciate exactly the value and the political importance of her salon and of her influence.

"Mediocre, incoherent, cosmopolitan, these writers are nevertheless interesting. They are interesting because they are mediocre; because they have painted themselves in an epoch which, as time goes on, imposes itself more and more vividly on the passionate curiosity of history; because they have candidly told their daily impressions, their banal little lives—shown hearts without greatness, hopes without an horizon, hatreds without beauty. They are mediocre, like any of us. They are men; and, as they are sincere, they are social types, representatives of an epoch."

There is one trait which you will find in all these correspondents, one common tie: it is the spirit of opposition to the Napoleonic system. They all, more or less, discuss the merits, the faults of the Emperor. A great evolution was produced by the fall of Napoleon, and by the close of the long period of war which began at the time of the French Revolution and ended in 1815. M. Pélisser will have it that after 1815 a great fusion of ideas took place, and he thinks that he finds a proof of this in the preoccupations of the correspondents of Madame d'Albany.

"Hatred of the Empire," he says, "created a community of sentiment between the peoples; and out of it naturally arose a European, an international policy. The cosmopolitan society formed of the former adversaries of Napoleon had in the forefront of its concerns the principles of the Holy Alliance, the defence of tradition and of legitimacy, the defence of public order in all countries. In presence of these great objects the particular events of each country lost something of their local interest for those citizens of the world, who examined them chiefly as symptoms and manifestations of the great currents of international ideas. Thus it was that the reactionaries (and Madame d'Albany and her familiar friends were of their number) followed with equal curiosity the struggle of the legitimist and conservative spirit against the 'party of disorder' in each country: in England, the trial of Queen Caroline and the troubles at Manchester; in Spain, the insurrection of the Cortes, and the Trocadero expedition; in Naples, the movement *del Ventuno*; in the East, the first movements of Greek independence; in France, the parliamentary quarrels and the assassination of the Duke de Berry; in Europe, the acts of the Holy Alliance and the sessions of the Congresses."

On all these events Madame d'Albany was perpetually informed in her Casa del Lung' Arno. She wrote to Sismondi: "I am at my window, looking out on passing events." In what spirit did she judge them? We could form a reasonable judgment of this question only if we were in possession of the letters she herself wrote in answer to her correspondents. But we do not possess them, and it is to be supposed that many have been lost or destroyed. I know from the son of one of Madame d'Albany's correspondents, who owns many of her letters, that she was a very exact and very prolix writer. She used to use very large quarto paper, covering as many as five or six pages with her handwriting. It is probable that the appeal which M. Pélissier makes to the families of the numerous acquaintances of Madame d'Albany will be heard, especially since, after nearly two-thirds of a century, there is now a sort of prescription which would allow their publication. We may, therefore, hope that some day or other M. Pélissier may be able to give a sequel to his present work.

In a letter written to Mme. d'Albany by Mme. de Genlis, we read:

"I have the advantage of knowing you so well! People paint themselves much better in genuine letters, written with the stroke of a pen, than in works of the imagination. We can judge Mme. de Sévigné with certainty, while 'Zaïde' and the 'Princesse de Clèves' can give us only favorable prepossessions of their author [Mme. de Lafayette]. Hence it is, madame, that the charming letters of yours which I have read, have inspired in me feelings which could not be produced by all my printed pages."

Mme. de Genlis was a great flatterer, at times, but she was certainly not a bad judge in literary matters.

Correspondence.

THE ETERNAL LAW.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Some fourteen years ago, a biting satire on the Spanish administration appeared in Madrid under the title of 'Filipinas in their own Juice.' As the Filipinos have now got out of the frying-pan into the fire, is there no way of persuading the new cooks that they are working to their own detriment? I have now lying before me a collection of stories written by Joaquim Manoel de Macedo during slavery times under the title of 'As Victimas-Algozes' (Victims-Executioners). The eminent Brazilian novelist shows us how the mere presence of victims (slaves) has a demoralizing influence on their owners themselves, so that in the end the victims practically become the executioners of their masters. Mars is the friend of lies, and the compromises to which it is necessary to resort in order to keep the Filipinas in subjection make their acquisition dear at any cost.

I had some compunction about saying this, but there are moments when it is very hard to keep silence.

Ἀγάμεμνον, οὐδ' εἰ πέλεκυν ἐν χερσῖν ἔχων
μέλλοι τις εἰς τράχηλον ἐμβαλεῖν ἐμόν,
σιγήσομαι δίκαιά γ' ἀντειπεῖν ἔχων.

Yours very respectfully, O. T. T.

May 3, 1902.

MUNICIPAL REFERENDUM.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Students of local government in America find much interest in an ordinance passed March 4 last by the Village Council of Winnetka, Ill., which establishes the referendum principle in matters relating to corporate franchises and the issue of bonds payable out of the municipal treasury. Additional significance is attached to this movement because of the fact that the village is a suburb of Chicago, inhabited largely by persons doing business in that metropolis. One need scarcely be reminded, moreover, of the dual system of local government that has long obtained in Illinois. The New England people who settled the northern part of the State brought with them the plan of town government, with its democratic ideals and possibilities, while southern Illinois, with its county system, still reminds one of the influence of Virginian colonists. The "town meetings" accordingly gave Winnetka voters opportunities for discussing all matters affecting the general welfare of the community. No less fortunate has been the elimination of party lines in questions of local importance. Hence, in point of fact, long before the adoption of the ordinance

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in question the citizens enjoyed not only the right of having certain important questions decided by popular vote, but the right of initiating legislation as well.

This combination of the referendum and the initiative appears to have worked satisfactorily so far. The village now owns its own water plant and lighting equipment, and, through its Village Council and other local boards, is governed by its best citizens, who serve without compensation. One of the most influential of these says that he thinks "Winnetka is the best governed municipality in the country." The following excerpt from the recent ordinance prescribing the methods of local legislation in Winnetka may therefore prove of some value to those interested in the subject:

"1st. Before the passage of any ordinance, the Council shall order such ordinance engrossed by the Village Clerk in the proper book and posted in three of the most public places in said Village, to wit: On the Village Bulletin Board on Elm Street, just East of the C. & N.-W. R. R. tracks, on the Village Bulletin Board on Oak Street, just West of the C. & N.-W. R. R. tracks, and on the Village Bulletin Board near the Lakeside Depot.

"2d. Any ordinance which shall grant or create any franchise or franchises or valuable rights, or provide for the issue of bonds payable out of the general funds of the Village other than the issue of bonds for the payment or retirement of existing bonds, shall be submitted to the legal voters of the Village prior to its passage.

"3d. No ordinance shall come before the Council for passage until five days after the posting of the same, and if prior to the expiration of said five days a petition signed by at least fifty of the legal voters of the Village be presented to the Village Council requesting that such ordinance be submitted to a vote of the people, then it shall be the duty of said Council to so submit said ordinance as hereinafter provided.

"4th. No ordinance which shall have been submitted to a vote of the people in accordance with the above provision shall come before the Council for passage until the result of said vote has been declared in open Council.

"5th. If said vote shall consist of a majority of the registered votes at the last Village election, then it shall be the duty of the Council to abide by the decision thereby expressed.

"6th. When an ordinance comes up for passage, it shall be again read before the Council, and a yea-and-nay vote taken on the same.

"Section 4. The passage of any ordinance shall require the concurrence of a majority of all the trustees elected.

"Section 5. All ordinances shall, within one month after they are passed, be published by the Clerk, posting copies of the same for five days in three of the most public places described in Clause 1, Section 3, of this ordinance.

"Section 6. The manner of referring any ordinance to the citizens, unless otherwise requested by petition signed by at least fifty of the legal voters of the Village, shall be as follows:

"A Printed copy of the ordinance shall be mailed by the Village Clerk to each registered voter of the Village, with a numbered blank on which the voter can register his vote over his signature. This to be filed with the Village Clerk within five days after having been so mailed, but the seals to be broken and the result declared only in open Council at its first meeting held after the expiration of said five days."

It ought to be added that the population of the village is about 2,000, and that the Winnetka system, so to speak, grew out of an attempt made some years ago by the village trustees to grant a forty-year franchise to a local gas company.

Respectfully yours, B. J. RAMAGE.

SEWANEE, TENN., April 22, 1902.

THE BREAD TAX IN ENGLAND.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Anent your editorial of April 17 on the new British grain duties, the following from the *Times* weekly of September 17, 1901, may interest your readers.

At a meeting held last September in the offices of the Colony of Victoria, London, the results of a test of South Australian flour were submitted. A sack selling for $4.62 yielded 100 quartern-loaves, which at 11 cents per loaf amounted to $11 (11 and 12 cents are usual prices for quartern-loaves). This left $6.38 to cover baking, working expenses, and profit—a liberal allowance for these items is $3.60—or a margin of $2.78. A tax, therefore, of 10 cents per hundredweight, or 17.4 cents for every 100 loaves, less than one-fifth cent per loaf, would not of itself necessitate any increase in the selling price. The Coöperative Baking Society further undertook to bake and deliver fifty sacks of this flour weekly for $3.60 per sack.—Yours truly,

J. W. HAMILTON.

ST. PAUL, MINN., April 28, 1902.

AN ART PHOTOGRAPHIC COLLECTION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I have read with much interest your article entitled "A Reference Library of Art Reproductions." I have thought that some of your readers might be interested in a brief account of what the Norwich Free Academy has done, on a small scale, in exactly the line which the writer of your article recommends.

With the Norwich Free Academy are connected the Slater Museum, an excellent library of 12,000 volumes, and an Art School. There was, therefore, a special incentive to devise means by which photographs might be turned to the greatest use. Our library possesses about 2,000 photographs illustrating the departments of painting, architecture, and sculpture. There are twice as many photographs of paintings as there are of buildings, and twice as many architectural photographs as there are photographs of sculpture.

All the photographs are catalogued, and the cards for each of the three classes are arranged in separate drawers. The cards are so written that not only the name of the artist, but also the place where the original is found, and the school to which the work belongs, can all be referred to. The result is, that, in a wonderfully compact form, one has under his hand the best illustrations of the whole field of art in its three great divisions. The entire number of our photographs is a little less than 2,000; the cost, not including cases, has been about $3,000.

The cases are placed in the closest proximity to the catalogue, and it is an instantaneous matter to put one's hand on any photograph which one needs. It has been a source of satisfaction to find by actual experience that our comparatively inexpensive collection has been sought for use in some of our large cities which had nothing that corresponded to it.

The undersigned will gladly furnish further information to any one who may desire it in regard to our photographs, the cases in which they are contained, or any other matter.—Yours very sincerely,

ROBERT P. KEEP.

NORWICH, CONN., April 30, 1902.

AN AMERICAN ACADEMY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your issue of April 17, Mr. H. E. Shepherd corrects Professor Flügel's impression that his is " the first attempt to outline the earlier history of a British Academy," and gives some important additional references. Permit me to draw attention to yet another treatment of the subject. In Prof. O. F. Emerson's 'History of the English Language' (1894), pp. 90-95, most of Professor Flügel's instances are given, along with several others, notably a proposition made by Edmund Bolton in 1617, more than thirty years before the earliest passage cited by Professor Flügel.

It may be of interest at the present time to note that the proposition to establish an Academy in this country is of considerable antiquity. In the Boston *Evening Transcript* of February 28, 1896, Mr. Albert Matthews called attention to a letter written to the President of Congress by John Adams from Amsterdam in 1780, and quoted the following passage:

"Most of the nations of Europe have thought it necessary to establish by public authorities institutions for fixing and improving their proper languages. I need not mention the academies in France, Spain, and Italy, their learned labors, nor their success. But it is very remarkable, that although many learned and ingenious men in England have from age to age projected similar institutions for correcting and improving the English tongue, yet the government have never found time to interpose in any manner. . . . The honor of forming the first public institution for refining, correcting, improving, and ascertaining the English language, I hope is reserved for congress; they have every motive that can possibly influence a public assembly to undertake it. . . . I would therefore submit to the consideration of congress the expediency and policy of erecting by their authority a society under the name of 'The American Academy for refining, improving, and ascertaining the English Language.'" (Works, vii., 249-251.)

Mr. Matthews further quoted this amusing passage from a letter written by Adams to a friend a few days later:

"After congress shall have done it, perhaps the British king and parliament may have the honor of copying the example. This I should admire. England will never have any more honor, excepting now and then that of imitating the Americans." (Works, ix., 510.)

I am, sincerely yours,

W. A. NEILSON.

CAMBRIDGE, MASS., April 22, 1902.

REGARDING "MOAT."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Dr. S. A. Green last November called attention in the *Nation* to the local use in Groton, Mass., of the word "moat" as applied to certain brooks at their junction with the Nashua River. As Dr. Green's query concerning the origin and currency of moat appears to have elicited no response, I submit what follows:

Manifestly "moat" meaning hill or em-

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bankment is inapplicable to the thing called moat in the folk-speech of Groton. The thing described is a confluence, what the men of old time termed "a waters' meet." Moat signifying a trench filled with water is a technical term used in connection with works of fortification, and does not fit the facts given so well as "mote," a meeting or meet.

Stormonth's English Dictionary has: "Mote n. *mot;* also gemote, in *Anglo-Saxon times*, a meeting, as in the *Witenagemot*, the assembly of wisemen." Ward-mote and folk-mote are instanced. It may be added that, in the City of London, the meeting of the freemen at which Councilmen are elected is called "ward-mote" to this day. The Century Dictionary and Skeat (Etymological Dictionary) both treat mote as an obsolete form of moot, meaning meeting or assembly.

Numerous archaic compound words in which mote or mot signifying "meeting" occurs might be given; a few must suffice. Gomme, in 'Primitive Folk-Moots,' speaks of a Motestowhill near Stoneleigh where the socmen held meetings. Worsaae, in his 'Danes and Norwegians in England, Scotland, and Wales,' says: "A document of the year 1258 conveys a gift of some ground in the suburbs of Dublin in Thingmotha (from mote, a meeting). The Thing place was near the present site of Dublin Castle, the name of the surrounding parish was 'St. Andrew de Thengmote.'" Stubbs, in his 'Constitutional History of England,' vol. i., p. 431, notes the existence of *tunscipesmot*, township-meeting, shire-moot, hundred moot, and portmanmot, court of portreeve in boroughs. Vinogradoff, in 'Villainage in England,' cites *sockemanemot* and *frankhalimote*. Although Stormonth, Skeat, and the Century Dictionary all cite various kindred forms of mote in Anglo-Saxon or the Scandinavian tongues, none of them notices the use of mote or its Norse equivalents in the sense of junction or confluence. But Cleasby's 'Icelandic-English Dictionary' has the following:

"Mot (Anglo-Saxon *gemot;* Old English *mote* or *moot* in ward-mote; Danish möde, Swedish mot and möte) a meeting.

"2. As a Norse law term; in Norway a *mot* was a town meeting and is opposed to *thing*, a county meeting.

"3. A joint, juncture; *ar-mot* a meeting of waters, also a local name. [Compare Latin Confluentia, Coblentz.]"

According to Björkman's 'Svensk-Englesk Ordbok,' *möte* means confluence as well as meeting or assembly. *Aa* in Norwegian and Danish and *Å* in Swedish signify a small river or streamlet, and we have in Swedish: *Åmun*, rivermouth, *Åbryn*, river brink, *Åstrand*, riverbank, as well as *Aaford* and *Aamot* in Norwegian. *Aamot* means "a meeting of waters" and "confluence." (See Geelmuyden's 'Engelsk-Norsk Ordbok.') According to the 'Dictionnaire des Bureaux de Poste' (Berne, 1895), *Aamot*, near Drammen, and *Aamotsdal*, near Skien, are post-offices in Norway. Map 95, g. 6 in the 'Century Atlas' shows *Aamot*, in the province of Hedermarke, Norway, on the Glommen River.

Watersmeet, where the Combe Park Water joins the East Lyn River, a few miles above Lynmouth in Devonshire, England, is well known to tourists in the Doone country. Bagworthy Water is a stream in the same region. Watersmeet is found in Johnston's Atlas, 1889 (see Devonshire), and on the North Devon sheet, *i. e.*, No. 27, of the maps of the Ordnance Survey. Again, Watersmeet appears as the name of a town in Michigan (see Map 22, C. 5, Century Atlas). Is water used as a synonym of brook or river anywhere in this country? Moore, in his Irish Melodies, sings of the "Sweet vale of Avoca," where "the bright waters meet." The waters whose meeting (mote) forms the Avoca (which is Celtic for "meeting of the waters," according to Chambers's Encyclopædia), are the *Avonbeg*, or little river, and the *Avonmore*, big river.

The Celtic *Avoca* and the Norwegian *Aamot* appear to be closely synonymous with the Devonshire *watersmeet*. One is inclined to ask whether *aa* or *mote* occurs in the folk-speech of Devonshire, or of any other English county in which Norse influence is traceable. Maps of the Lake country present so many "waters" and "becks" that one is led to think that *aa* or *mote* may still survive in the folk-speech of Cumberland or Westmorland.

It is likely that "mote," and not "moat," is the correct form of the word cited by Dr. Green, and that it was brought over sea from an early home of the Angles. Possibly there are other motes or meets in New England, but I have searched many maps for them in vain; nor have I found a mote on any map of East Anglia, or Friesland, or Denmark.

EDWARD M. HARTWELL.

BOSTON, April 23, 1902.

Notes.

A volume containing the Physical Papers of the late Henry A. Rowland of Johns Hopkins University is to be issued under the editorial direction of President Remsen and Professors Welch and Ames. The several articles reprinted from magazines and journals number sixty in all. The memorial address of Professor Mendenhall and a portrait of Professor Rowland will further enrich the volume, which may be had for five dollars, subscribed in advance of publication by orders sent to Prof. Joseph S. Ames, Baltimore.

L. C. Page & Co., Boston, who have taken over from Silver, Burdett & Co. the complete works of Prof. Charles G. D. Roberts, will publish shortly 'The Kindred of the Wild,' a book of animal life by this author, illustrated by full-page drawings by Charles Livingston Bull, and in October his 'Barbara Ladd: A Novel of Early Colonial Days.'

Immediately forthcoming from the W. A. Wilde Company, Boston, is 'What Gladys Saw,' a nature story, by Frances Margaret Fox.

A new novel by Henry James, 'The Wings of a Dove,' and a novel of theatrical life by Clara Morris, 'A Pasteboard Crown,' are in the press of Charles Scribner's Sons.

A new volume of poetry by Robert Underwood Johnson will be issued directly by the Century Co.

The Oxford University Press will soon issue the first volume of Mr. C. Oman's 'History of the Peninsular War,' extending from the Treaty of Fontainebleau to the battle of Corunna, 1807-1809. The title of this work to existence after Napier lies chiefly in the political aspect of events.

No. 11 of the Riverside Art Series (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) is devoted to 'Tuscan Sculpture.' *Early* Tuscan Sculpture would have been a more precise title, for, as Miss Hurll had devoted a previous volume to Michelangelo, she does not touch upon his work again, nor is any mention made of his contemporaries and successors. A more inexplicable omission is that of Ghiberti, who was certainly one of the first artists of his own or any time, and whose influence on both sculpture and painting was enormous and has not yet ceased. Miss Hurll's text deals, as usual, more with subject than with art, but some æsthetic appreciation is attempted. That her books will be useful in schools we have no doubt.

Mr. Walter Crane's book on 'The Bases of Design,' first published in 1898 (Bell-Macmillan), is now issued by the same publishers in a new and cheaper edition. There seems to be no change in picture or text, the smaller form being arrived at by cutting down margins without reducing the size of the illustrations. The printed page is, however, a trifle shorter, and the type has been entirely reset, necessitating a new index, which is somewhat fuller than the old. The marginal notes have been abolished, and replaced by running headings and titles under the cuts in the ordinary manner. If the book loses some of its beauty, it loses none of its usefulness.

In 'American Masters of Painting' (Doubleday, Page & Co.), Mr. Charles H. Caffin has attempted what, so far as we know, has not been attempted before, a serious critical examination of the art of thirteen American painters. His list is, on the whole, a good one. Gilbert Stuart seems hardly in place, unless the list were to be made exhaustive. The others are all contemporary artists, or nearly so, and we find no fault with Mr. Caffin's inclusions, and only wonder at some of his exclusions. One does not understand why William Hunt does not accompany George Fuller, or why Thayer and Dewing have not their place beside George De Forest Brush. We cannot, however, much blame a writer for the choice of that of which he shall write: the important thing is what he finds to say of his chosen subjects, and the fault we find with Mr. Caffin's writing is that his point of view is too exclusively literary. He writes well enough; he discusses temperaments and the nature of personalities; everything flows along in a pleasant enough way, and one feels, for the moment, that something of importance is being said. And yet, when all is done, one has no greater insight than before into the nature of the art which these men have produced. We do not ask for discussion of technicalities, but merely for such sympathy with and understanding of the painter's point of view as shall make it vivid to us. That is what we do not get from Mr. Caffin, and it is doubtful if it ever has been got from one not himself a painter.

'The Domain of Art' (London: Murray; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co.) contains six lectures delivered as Slade professor of fine arts in the University of Cambridge by Sir W. Martin Conway. The lecturer has evidently taken his function to be not the teaching of art history or art theory, still less the teaching of technical matters or the creation of artists, but the suggestion to men of general culture, who are also likely, many of them, to be men of wealth and influence, of some notion of the nature

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of art and of the motives of artists, and some idea of the ways in which wealth and influence and general culture can be used for the true encouragement of art. His six subjects are "Artist and Amateur," "The Art of Living," "Art Criticism," "The Practical Value of Art," "Art History," and "The Succession of Ideals," and on each he finds something valuable to say. The lectures on criticism and on the study of art history are those that we have found the most interesting. In the first, the author takes the view that no one but the artist has any right to attempt technical criticism, and that even in criticism of content the only good criticism is that which praises and explains, not that which condemns. "No one is sensitive to every kind of beauty," and the beauty may be there though the critic has not seen it. Where he can see beauty, let him act as intermediary to interpret it to the public, that they may see it also. In the same lecture are some good remarks on the evils of modern exhibitions and competitions. In the second there is good discussion on the management of museums, with advocacy of a Museum of Photographs, from which we have recently quoted at some length.

Prof. David G. Ritchie, having collected a number of his essays and lectures which have been printed in various periodicals, now publishes them in a volume entitled 'Studies in Political and Social Ethics' (Macmillan). This author is a disciple of T. H. Green, and is perhaps a clearer writer than his master. His criticism is of a high order, especially when he is laying bare the weak spots in systems that he dislikes. His constructive ability appears to us less marked, and many of his strictures might be turned against himself. His aversion to what he supposes to be represented by the maxim "Laisser faire" is so extreme as to lead him to scoff at the advocates of arbitration and the opponents of militarism, and to put him in the position of commending war. Those who have read his systematic work will notice little that is novel in this volume; others will find it stimulating reading.

Of the making of college-song collections there is no end. Hinds & Noble, who, some time ago, published 'Songs of All the Colleges,' have in press 'Songs of the Western Colleges' and 'New Songs for College Glee Clubs.' Their latest issue is 'Songs of the Eastern Colleges,' which contains the old favorites, together with many new songs. There are 185 in all, and no one who examines the collection will complain of a lack of variety.

Following the example of W. H. Cummings of London, Dr. James M. McLaughlin, director of music in the Boston public schools, has prepared a brief book on the 'Elements and Notation of Music' (Ginn & Co.). The chapter on Expression is little more than a dictionary of terms, with a few pages on tempo; and it is odd to find a chapter on conducting (which concerns very few musicians) preceding the chapters on intervals and scales. Apart from these features, the book may be commended as a useful little manual for teachers and pupils.

Among recent publications of G. Schirmer are 'Exercises in Melody-Writing,' by Dr. Percy Goetschius; a new vocal score of Flotow's "Martha," with an introductory essay, by H. E. Krehbiel; and a collection of 'Études for the Pianoforte' edited by Rafael Joseffy. While musical text-books are usually occupied chiefly with harmony and counterpoint, Dr. Goetschius italicizes his opinion that "the prime object of all theoretical study in music is, or should be, melody." He thinks the best results will be gained by beginning his course of studies as early as the age of twelve or thirteen; but he has made no attempt to adapt his style of teaching, which is technical and ponderous, to that age. The musical illustrations are, however, very copious, and this will help students over many difficulties. Flotow's opera still holds its own on the stage, and, with Krehbiel's erudite and gossipy introduction, will appeal anew to pianists and singers of old-fashioned taste. As for Mr. Joseffy's collection of 'Études,' it would be impossible to speak of it too highly. Mr. Joseffy, unfortunately, has but seldom played in public in recent years; but he has taught regularly at the National Conservatory, and has thus ascertained what is most needful to students of the pianoforte. Chopin is represented by three *études*, Moscheles, Czerny, Henselt, Schlözer, and Schumann by one each. The studies are carefully fingered, and the editor's helpful notes are printed on the same pages as the music. The collection is, of course, only for advanced students.

Now that the opera singers are gone to Europe, not to return till next November, the admirers of the prima donnas, tenors, and basses will have to content themselves with Gustav Kobbé's chatty "pictorial souvenir" entitled 'Opera Singers,' and published by R. H. Russell. It is a great improvement on all its predecessors. While written in a gossipy style, without any attempt at criticism, it is authentic in regard to its biographic information, the facts being derived from the singers themselves. There are also glimpses of life behind the scenes and of incidents "on the road," which will interest the large class of music-lovers whose curiosity concerning the personality of singers seems to be insatiable.

'Wild Life of Orchard and Field,' by Ernest Ingersoll (Harper & Bros.), discusses in a general way the habits of birds and small mammals. The illustrations are from excellent photographs, and the text is highly instructive, showing the author's wide acquaintance with the literature of his subject. He is occasionally careless in minor statements, however, as where he permits himself to say that butcher birds seldom eat the mice that they have caught and impaled. He writes entertainingly of the homing powers of animals, and of the nest-building and migration of birds, and describes characteristic summer, winter, and spring birds of the Eastern States; treating at length of swallows, orioles, the song sparrow, and the flicker. Among mammals, he describes with considerable detail the different species of mice and squirrels common in New York State, and takes up the woodchuck, the opossum, the short-tailed shrew, the weasel, and the muskrat. He also goes outside the vertebrate kingdom, and writes profitably of snails. There is an interesting chapter about the general effect of the advent of civilization on the birds of North America. Mr. Ingersoll says that the displacement of forests by hay and grain fields and weedy pastures, the introduction of orchards, gardens, and farm-yards, with their accompanying insects, the provision of comfortable shelter for certain species, and the destruction of hostile animals, have increased the number of singing birds east of the Mississippi.

'More Tales of the Birds,' by W. Warde Fowler (Macmillan), may perhaps be described as containing less about the birds than about people. It is a collection of pleasant English stories, in each of which some bird has an important place; but the bird's life is closely linked with human lives, and in most cases gets its main significance from them. For example, one of the best stories, "The Last of the Barons," centres the reader's interest, not in the old kite and his mate, late survivors of a race that was threatened with extermination through the zeal of oölogists, but in the needy collector, who received a liberal offer for a clutch of kite's eggs, and was forced, against his conscience, to rob this pair at the risk of extinguishing a species. "The Sorrows of a House Martin" contains more ornithological information than any other tale, describing, as it does, the martin's perils in migration, struggles for food, difficulties in house-building, and fights with its enemies; but all the stories have something from the life histories of the birds, related in an untechnical, accurate way. Mr. Fowler's art of story-telling has blemishes. He often resorts to the worn device of making birds talk, and sometimes shifts unwisely his point of view. In the story of a lark's nest on the field of Waterloo, his imagination does not rise to his subject. Yet the book is decidedly readable, and will interest young people in the birds that it describes.

In an address delivered before the Royal Academy of Belgium, and recently printed with the title of 'L'Expansion Exotique des Littératures Européennes au XIXe Siècle' (Brussels: Hayez), Prof. Paul Fredericq of the University of Ghent discusses an important and somewhat novel phase of the growth of modern literature. Considering the various European literatures, he finds that six of them have developed beyond the confines of the continent in which they were born—English, in North America, India, and Australasia; Spanish, in South America and Mexico; Portuguese, in Brazil; French, in Canada and elsewhere; Russian, in its vast Asiatic possessions; and Dutch, in the East Indies and South Africa. It is the contention of M. Fredericq that to these six the future belongs, and that such literatures as German, Polish, and Scandinavian must in the end perish, because they lack the reserve force possessed by the others. Moreover, since the centres of civilization move with the seats of empire, London will have to give way to New York or Melbourne, Madrid to Buenos Ayres, Lisbon to Rio Janeiro, and Amsterdam to Batavia or Johannesburg, in the development of their respective literatures. M. Fredericq shows considerable knowledge of the foreign growth of European culture, but he falls into several errors of detail. De Quincey, for example, is classed among American writers of prose, and Hubert Howe Bancroft is confused with his more distinguished namesake, George Bancroft.

The ninth volume of the "Oeuvres Complètes de Christiaan Huygens," in the sump-

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tuous edition put forth by the Holland Scientific Society, is now being placed in the hands of subscribers. It includes the correspondence between Huygens and his friends, and, one may add, between the friends of his friends, so far as relates to his main interests, from the year 1685 to 1690. Apparently another volume will complete the correspondence, three or four additional volumes being required to conclude the works. One notices in this volume a slight waning of interest in discovery and an increase of interest in speculation natural to an old man. The construction of lenses, the Saturnian system, chronometry, horology, in some degree give place to the theory of curves, general algebra, and the calculus, the wave theory of light, and the constitution of the universe. While his study is still a sort of clearing-house of scientific information for the whole of Europe, Huygens's interests are somewhat fewer, and his range of correspondents smaller. Newton and Leibnitz appear in only a few letters, though they always illuminate the horizon. Huygens's visit to England yields only a single letter, but echoes of the visit are heard through the remainder of the volume. His eagerness to see the 'Principia' is noteworthy. He has a batch of criticisms on the third book in June, 1687, although the manuscript of that volume was not exhibited to the Royal Society until April of that year, and not printed until July. The volume is adequately illustrated, and has the usual copious indexes, sixty-five pages in all.

The third instalment of Herr Von Brandt's 'Thirty-three Years in Eastern Asia' has appeared, completing the work (Leipzig: Georg Wigand). The first two have already been reviewed in our pages, and the *dritter Band* calls for no further notice than to say that the veteran diplomatist gives herein a summary, very full, clear, and fair, of Christian missions, the opium question, the various episodes and treaties, of the Russian-Chinese incidents, of French-Chinese relations, of the audience question, and of the interrelations of China, Korea, and Japan down to 1893. There is no reference whatever to recent German movements in the Far East, of Germany's seizure of Kiao-Chau, and of her tremendously costly colony. This omission will undoubtedly disappoint many readers; but then, Herr Von Brandt professes to give only "reminiscences," and he prints on the forefront of his pleasing work, "China 1875 bis 1893." Hence he can rightly excuse himself from entering into what is problematical. Germany's past is at least secure.

The magnificent Victoria Falls on the Zambesi, discovered by Dr. Livingstone in 1855, will soon be accessible to the ordinary tourist. The section of the Cape-to-Cairo Railway from Buluwayo to that river is expected to be opened next year. A great steel bridge, having one span of 500 feet, will carry the line across the falls. A railway exploration party has been dispatched over the railway route beyond the falls, as far as Lake Tanganyika.

The progress of Egypt during the past year, says Lord Cromer, in his annual report for 1901, has been "steady and normal." The sound footing on which the fiscal system has been placed is demonstrated by a surplus of $10,000,000, notwithstanding the Sudan expenditure was over $2,000,000. The means of transportation by both rail and road have been improved and extended, and the principal irrigation works are nearly completed. Slavery, the corvée, and the coorbash are practically abolished; the army is well organized, and there are new prisons, reformatories, and hospitals. The peasant is being freed from the grip of the money-lenders, and "a very great impulse has been given to education in all its branches." In other words, "the foundations on which the well-being and the material prosperity of a civilized community should rest have been laid." Lord Cromer dwells at some length on the methods adopted to preserve the temples at Philæ, which will be partially submerged every year when the reservoir at Assuan is finished. In regard to the Sudan, which "naturally lags behind," he says "the point of chief importance has been to avoid any serious fiscal or administrative errors." The Government "endeavors to carry out the ordinary principles of civil administration through the agency of a number of carefully selected officials, most of whom are military officers." In a reference to the Government contracts for materials, there is the statement that "the contracts placed in the United States have been disappointing; none were placed there in 1901."

The tentative excavations made by the Berlin Royal Museum in Miletus have been so promising that a special organization has been effected in the German capital to push this work energetically. Enough funds have been secured to buy the whole peninsula on which the city stood, and which is now covered with vineyards, corn-fields, and cottages. The newly acquired territory includes the whole western half of the old city, together with portions of the necropolis, the "sacred way" that led up to the Apollo temple, as also the entire hill upon which the theatre was situated, and the harbor, at the entrance of which are found two colossal lions of marble, the recently uncovered marketplace and public halls one hundred metres in length, and some fine Roman fountains, together with other ruins and remains. The whole territory belonging to the Germans covers one million square metres.

—Senator Lodge contributes to the May *Scribner's* some impressions made upon him by his visit to Russia, last summer. While he takes pains to express his dissent from the extreme to which the economic interpretation of history is inclined to go, yet he regards the economic feature as the element of most importance in forecasting the future of Russian development. The power of rapid expansion has been demonstrated, as well as the power to control the various peoples brought under her dominion. The point of weakness seems to be the inability to develop profitably the immense natural resources which her territorial growth has placed within her power. Senator Lodge's use of the Trans-Siberian Railroad, in comparison with private railway enterprise in the United States, as an index of the economic inefficiency of the Russians, is hardly fair. What field of public improvement in this country, national, State, or municipal, is free from a record of wastefulness, inefficiency, and corruption? The race which from its low position of two centuries ago has produced the Russian leaders and the Russian power of to-day, certainly has great possibilities in itself, as well as in its lands and its mineral deposits; and its geographical position is such that it can afford to wait. The most important question is whether it can turn the corner toward political freedom and intellectual development of the masses without a disastrous military revolution. The most interesting feature of Dr. Gilman's concluding chapter of reminiscences is his tribute to Sidney Lanier. A German pathologist to whom Ephraim Keyser's bronze bust of Lanier was shown merely uttered the words, "Hm, tuberculosis." "Christlike!" was the comment of another visitor, who had some knowledge of Lanier's life and work. Will E. Low makes an interesting comparison of Victor Galland, Paul Baudry, and Puvis de Chavannes, raising the problem of the true relation of decorative art to architecture.

—The theory that the Anarchist is simply an ordinary criminal, to be "stamped out" by repressive legislation drastic in proportion to the enormity of his crime, receives judicious and forcible criticism in the current *Atlantic* from the pen of William M. Salter. It is an appeal to reason which legislative bodies ought carefully to consider, but they will doubtless go on enacting laws which, if in existence, would not have affected in the slightest degree the cases of Presidential assassination in the past, and the effect of which in the future must be simply to increase the substratum of anarchical opinion from which such assassinations spring. Mr. Salter's best positive suggestion is the necessity for the most scrupulous attention to law and justice on the part of our law-makers and executives themselves. Somewhat akin to Mr. Salter's paper is Miss Vida D. Scudder's study of "A Hidden Weakness in our Democracy." It is a renewed and well-enforced presentation of the old thought that the one half knows not how the other half lives, with a keen recognition of the impossibility of really successful democratic government and society under such conditions; decidedly "pessimistic" if it is unalterably decided to go on hurling that term at any one who sees evils clearly, feels them deeply, and is ready for an earnest effort to root them out. J. Laurence Laughlin pleads for a higher commercial education as a legitimate part of the mission of our universities. What is wanted is not the shallow work of the ordinary "business college," but such a broad and deep course as will possess genuine cultural value, and fit the mind of the student to grasp and solve the intricate and ever-changing problems of commerce as they arise. Thomas Sergeant Perry's appreciation of John Fiske is good reading for the thoughtful college student who is debating the question whether there is any longer a place in the world for the scholar who insists on retaining breadth as well as depth in his ideal.

—Mr. Edmund Gosse, in the current *Century*, assigns to Swinburne a somewhat peculiar position. He is at once "the summit of our contemporary Parnassus," with absolutely no serious question of his claim to preëminence since the death of Tennyson, and yet "is very little discussed nowa-

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days, takes no part in the movement of literature, and is almost wholly without influence." This neglect he considers but a passing mood of an idle, sensation-loving world of letters. Mr. Swinburne exists, like a snowclad mountain rising out of the plain, and the Mahomets of criticism will sooner or later go to the mountain. The reader's attention is called, with apparent gratification, to the fact that "more than thirty years have passed since Mr. Swinburne definitely and finally relinquished the amatory paganism of his adolescence." The second group of his poems, filled with the fervor of political revolution, under the influence of Mazzini, suffers from the fact that political revolutions in the direction of republicanism are not popular at present. "It is not merely that the revolutions so melodiously heralded have not taken place, but that after thirty years there is virtually nobody left who wishes that they had." Even the poet himself seems to have fallen away from the faith. Hopeless as it is to make people care for such poetry now, yet Mr. Gosse regards this group as containing some of the best poetry ever written, destined to rank sooner or later with the best of Shelley, Leopardi, and Victor Hugo. A strong point is made of Mr. Swinburne's close relation to the great body of poetry preceding him: he has studied his Æschylus and Shakspere, is a direct disciple of Shelley, is "linked as with chains of gold to Isaiah and to Æschylus, to Catullus, and to Milton, to the Latin and Provençal, and French and English poets in a long sequence that scarcely closes with Baudelaire and Victor Hugo."

—J. Scott Keltie, in the May *Harper's*, gives a brief outline of the results achieved by Sven Hedin in his last voyage of exploration in Central Asia. Dr. Hedin has had, apparently, a very successful trip. His new maps cover several hundred sheets, including a very full representation of the Yarkand River from Lailik to Yangi-Kul, "one of the most detailed maps which have ever been made of any river outside Europe," as he himself calls it. In geographical description, meteorological observation, etc., the bulk of material secured is far in advance of that of his former trip, and Dr. Keltie's opinion of the worth of this material is very high. Curiously enough, Dr. Hedin's first news of the great outbreak in China reached him in the form of messages from home expressing grave concern for his personal safety. The article of William Carmichael McIntosh on "Marine Fish-Destroyers" is an entirely unsuccessful attempt to prove the uselessness of legislation to maintain the fish supply, on the ground of the enormous destruction of food fishes by the various monsters of the deep and by one another. The myriads of fish devoured by their own kind contribute to the growth of those that remain and to the production of myriads more, while the wasteful methods of man have no such results. That good fishing-grounds have been sadly depleted by human hands in recent times is a proposition too well supported by evidence to be successfully denied. It proves little to say that the extinction of no species of food fish has taken place in modern seas. The difference between a bounteous supply and a point far short of extinction is a very wide, and in some cases economically a very important, difference. Dr. Raymond Dodge of Wesleyan University contributes an article on the motions of the eye in the act of vision, including some practical suggestions on the danger to the sight involved in the unwise use of the eyes on street cars or other means of conveyance in rapid motion. The Easy Chair makes Opdycke's translation of Castiglione's "Il Cortigiano" the text for some gentle but effective satire against the tendencies growing out of our new position as a "World Power."

—We commented last week on the revelations concerning the origin of the "Monroe" Doctrine, made from the Adams archives at Quincy, Mass., by Mr. Worthington C. Ford. The paper forms a part of the forthcoming Proceedings of the Massachusetts Historical Society, to which Mr. Charles Francis Adams contributes a revision and expansion of his Madison address touching "John Quincy Adams and Emancipation under Martial Law." The connection of this subject with that of the Monroe Doctrine is not simply the name of John Quincy Adams, but the principle of freedom which he represented, both in his espousal of the cause of the independent American governments and in his opposition to slavery and its extension. As early as 1819 we find among the papers of Mr. Adams declarations prophetic of the conflict concerning slavery and its downfall. As early as 1820 he predicted that a war for the dissolution of the Union must result in "the extirpation of slavery from this whole continent." In 1836 he advanced his famous doctrine, which was amplified in 1842, that slavery might be abolished by the President of the United States in the exercise of the war power. This doctrine was revived in the discussions of 1861. It was used by Mr. Sumner in a speech delivered before the Massachusetts Republican State Convention on the 1st of October in that year. It was embodied by Mr. Whiting of Boston, then solicitor of the War Department, in a pamphlet published by him in the summer of 1862, on the 'War Powers of the President,' some months before the issuance of Lincoln's preliminary proclamation of the 22d of the following September. Its part in persuading President Lincoln to exercise these powers is well known, and his emancipating pen may truly be said to have been guided by John Quincy Adams. The correspondence which Mr. C. F. Adams has appended is of very great value in contrasting the ex-President's anti-slavery theory with that of the abolitionists, who gave him a direct support which he frankly withheld from them. This contrast is not, of course, now first revealed, but it has, perhaps, never been so compactly set forth. The paradox is, that the statesman who would not lift a finger—on behalf either of the slave or of the Northern conscience in revolt against the pro-slavery compromises of the Constitution—to disturb "the Union as it is," and strenuously opposed any movement calculated to disturb it from these points of view, was irresistibly impelled to precipitate disunion and civil war in defence of Northern liberties against the encroachments of slavery. The Southern fire-eaters were under a similar compulsion. The abolitionists alone cut loose from the Constitution, and, both as patriots and as Christians, saw their duty "steadily and saw it whole."

—A new volume in the series of "Handbooks to the Great Public Schools" (Macmillan) is Mr. Reginald Airy's 'Westminster.' It has the characteristic features of its predecessors—the time-tables, the estimate of school expenses, the description of school sports, the explanation of school slang. But it has also an account of the one institution peculiar to Westminster, the Latin play; and the specimen Mr. Airy gives of the celebrated Epilogues, crammed full of "topical" allusions in Latin and English, is a pleasing example of scholarly ingenuity. The yacht race figures thus, in 1893:

> Exoptata diu quaesivi pocula—frustra:
> Nam vigilant, vigilant—litore in Americo!
>
> In vain the capture of the Cup I planned;
> Their *Vigilant's* prevailed—in Yankeeland.

The one thing conspicuously absent from this handbook is the list so prominent in all its predecessors, of distinguished old boys. Is this mere accident, or is it the fact that Westminster has for years been relatively unsuccessful? This is a question we can hardly expect its eulogist to answer, but to an outsider it would certainly seem as if the situation of the school in the heart of a great city were a grave disadvantage. It remains to be seen whether Dr. Gow, who has recently come to the headmastership of Westminster, after a successful experience at a school of a very different type, will succeed in giving a fresh start to the venerable and picturesque foundation. His appointment is a sign of the times, and we may look for some changes in the school programme, if nothing else.

A SCIENTIFIC STUDY OF ENGLISH LANDSCAPE.

The Scenery of England and the Causes to Which It Is Due. By the Rt. Honorable Lord Avebury, F.R.S., etc. The Macmillan Co. 1902.

The idea of writing a book which should describe the scenery of a country by explaining the forces and causes that have made it what it is, and have given to the existing landscape its peculiar character, is an excellent one. It is, moreover, one specially suited to an age in which the conscious love of nature is growing, and increased facilities for travel enable persons of moderate means to learn to know the countries they inhabit or visit far better than in any previous time. Every feature in a landscape is due to causes which can be discovered and explained—most of them physical causes, a smaller number economic or historical. But of these causes very few would occur to the ordinary traveller, while the way in which they have combined to produce the actual visible effects would still less present itself to his unaided mind. The persons are, indeed, rare who reflect upon the things with which they have been familiar from childhood. An intelligent stranger visiting England is more likely than an Englishman born to ask himself what produced the distinctive features of English landscape.

The book before us is well planned and executed so far as regards its scientific side. The author shows a competent knowledge of English geology and climatology, and doubtless possesses a sufficient mastery of botany also, though he scarcely touches that side of the subject. Five-sixths of the treatise is devoted to an ex-

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amination of the geological causes which have moulded the hills, valleys, and plains of England. It begins by a brief but sufficient sketch of the rocks of the country and their distribution, dwelling particularly, as is right, on the latest and superficial deposits of the Quaternary period, which form so large a part of the soil. After describing the general configuration of England and its relations to the European Continent, of which it formed a part at no very distant date (possibly, indeed, since the appearance of man), the author proceeds to deal with the coast line, showing why some parts are bold, others flat, what causes have enabled the sea to encroach on the land at some points, and the land to gain on the sea at others. These changes have been great—greater, in proportion to the size of the island, than those which have affected the coast line of the United States. Four chapters are then devoted to mountains and three to rivers. These are the best parts of the book. It would be impossible to criticise in detail the theories advanced regarding the origin of mountains, for some of these theories are still matter of controversy among geologists, and nearly all of them require a certain measure of technical knowledge to be mastered. But the description of English rivers, and the way in which their courses have been formed, is more within the comprehension of the ordinary reader, and is full of interest. The process by which a river bed and a river valley are excavated is investigated, the way in which rivers transport solid matter, the action of floods, the growth of deltas, the changes of river courses, the formation of terraces, the occurrence of waterfalls or rapids at particular points, the instances of subterranean water-courses, the relation of rivers to the various strata which they traverse—all these topics are handled in an intelligent and generally lucid way.

In particular there is an interesting discussion of the comparative antiquity of the chief rivers of Southern and Middle England; a discussion based on a consideration of the condition of the country in remote geological times. It has been suggested that the Thames as we know it now is a less important stream than it once was. In the days when the lias, oölite and chalk covered the whole of Western England (from which they have now largely disappeared by denudation) as far as the palæozoic mountains of Wales, the Thames may have drained an area to the northwest of its present basin which has subsequently been annexed by the Severn, then a much smaller stream; and its northern tributaries, such as the Cherwell, which joins it at Oxford, may also have at that time come down from points further to the north than their present sources. The arguments for this view, which Lord Avebury himself adopts, are too intricate to be here set forth, but they seem well founded, and are presented in a manner which is instructive, because it helps us to conceive of the way in which secular processes operate to change the surface and aspect of a country. Several pages of equal interest are devoted to explaining the remarkable cases in which, in several parts of eastern and southern England, rivers cut their way through ridges of hills instead of following what would seem, taking the surface of the country as it now exists, to be the natural line of discharge.

Another chapter examines the causes that produce lakes, and deals at some length with the theory which attributes not a few of them to glacial erosion. This doctrine has been disputed of late years as regards not a few of the instances formerly adduced, including the great Italian lakes at the southern foot of the Alps. Our author gives reasons for thinking that it holds true of many of the British lakes, though admitting that in some cases a moraine accumulated at the end of an old glacier is no less a cause of the lake than is the ice excavation of its basin. He observes, as indeed many a traveller must have observed, that lakes are a vanishing element in the landscape of the earth. Many have been filled up or have disappeared by desiccation. Many are being filled up to-day. Hardly any new ones are being created, hardly any existing ones enlarged.

One short chapter is given to the influence of what our author calls "law and custom" upon scenery. His remarks on the effect of English laws of inheritance, as compared with the laws of France, in causing the distribution of land into farms, as also in producing hedgerows and winding country lanes, are apposite, but the treatment of the general subject of the influence which man has exercised upon landscape is very inadequate. Far more might have been said about the way in which foreign trees have changed the landscape, and about the part played in it by the now dominant crops. Neither is the short chapter which considers the causes that have led to the creation of towns upon certain spots as full or instructive as it might have been made. Lord Avebury is much more at home in natural science than he is in history, and this whole side of the subject needs a treatment based on more extensive and thorough study. Neither do his etymologies always inspire us with confidence.

Speaking broadly, we may say that those parts of Lord Avebury's book which deal with the physical structure and configuration of England are carefully and intelligently done. They furnish an excellent foundation for the study of English scenery. But the superstructure has not been added. One would expect that when the physical causes had been explained, their connection with the actual landscape would have been brought out in a way to interest the tourist or the artist. There might have been what one may call a synthetic treatment of the subject, an effort to show how the causes, forces, and conditions so carefully analyzed have contributed to create the England which the traveller sees. Some typical and famous pieces of scenery might have been taken, such as Borrowdale, for instance, or the valley of the Wye, or the coast at Torquay, or the view from Richmond Hill near London, and the elements which make these spots beautiful might have been set forth in their combined action. Or certain districts might have been taken, such as the Yorkshire dales, or the Surrey downs and "bottoms," with their heaths and thickets and stretches of verdant pasture, or the moorlands of Somerset and Devon, pierced by romantic glens; and each of these classes of scenery might have been examined in the light of the geological and botanical data already given. Or the reader might have been conducted upon some journey which every traveller may be assumed to have made, such as that along the line of the London and Northwestern Railway, from Liverpool to London. The changing aspect of the surface, the lines of hills traversed or seen in the distance, the strata which successively reveal themselves in the cuttings, might have been referred to and explained. Any one of such methods would have the advantage of suggesting to the reader how he ought to observe landscape; and it is one of the chief uses of such a treatise as this to set people to use for themselves the data it supplies. Accordingly, the book is less interesting and less readable than it might have been made. The absence of labored pictorial passages is, indeed, no loss, yet a little more effort to present the characteristics of English landscape in a graphic and imaginative manner would not have been thrown away.

There is a profusion of photographic views and illustrative diagrams, well chosen, to explain the text. Though we regret the absence of what we have called the superstructure, the substructure is satisfactory. Whoever wishes to understand the physical geography of England as a preparation to the study either of the history of the country or of its scenic aspects will find the book useful. It contains a great deal of information which he will hardly find so conveniently arranged elsewhere, though he may be advised to refer for the geology to Ramsay's well-known 'Physical Geology and Geography of Great Britain,' and for the relations of physical geography to history to the recently published 'Historical Geography of the British Isles' of Mr. Mackinder, both excellent books.

TWO BOOKS ON ENGLISH PROSODY.

Milton's Prosody. By Robert Bridges. (New and enlarged edition.) Henry Frowde. 1901.

Classical Metres in English Verse. By William Johnson Stone. Henry Frowde. 1901.

The appearance of Mr. Bridges's book is very attractive. Its convenient size, neat binding, excellent paper, handsome, well-spaced type, and tasteful margins put one in a good humor with its contents. Repellent, however, and even irritating, is the arrangement of the treatise. The first part, on the verse of 'Paradise Lost,' is in three chapters; two chapters go to the second part, on the verse of 'Paradise Regained' and 'Samson Agonistes'; there follow appendices, A, B, C, D, E, F, G, H, and J. Appendix J is in two divisions, not closely related; for the former is on the rules of stress-rhythms, the latter on the accentual hexameter. In the sixty-six pages of appendices the matter presented seems quite as important as that set forth in the forty-six pages of the first and second parts. The treatise would be easier and pleasanter to read were it divided into fifteen chapters numbered serially. In indexes the book is rather pretentious, for it has three. Yet when we consult them for the word "fiction," which, in his system of verse-scansion, Mr. Bridges uses peculiarly and scarcely intelligibly as a technical term, we do not find the word indexed at all, and it appears in the index only casually under other headings.

To comprehend Mr. Bridges, it is necessary to form some idea of what he intends by this word "fiction." From what appears on pages 18, 19, 34, 45, 50, and 76 we rather

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infer that the meaning is somewhat as follows. Milton wrote many lines like P. L. vii., 446:

"Of rainbows and starry eyes. The waters thus."

He intended that, in reading, each syllable should be fully pronounced as in prose; but in accounting to himself for the variety of effects in his rhythm, he considered the final syllable of "starry" to be elided before "eyes," and imagined a similar elision for all similar cases. By this resort to a non-existent elision, applicable to any part of any line, he reduced the form of his line to that of the type-line from which his variant diverges. Mr. Bridges calls every case in which, according to his view, two unaccented syllables are to be separately pronounced in reading, but considered as one in accounting for the structure of the line, "a fiction."

This is anything but satisfying. The idea appears far-fetched, while the assumption of seeing into Milton's mind and divining what he himself nowhere stated as his method, seems unjustifiable. True, the first edition of 'Paradise Lost' prints many elisions, as "Th' Almighty." But this method of printing is applied so inconsistently that no safe inference can be drawn from it. It may represent Milton's intention; it may be merely a fashion of the time, based on a vague general misconception. Besides, as an explanation, Mr. Bridges's idea is a lumbering device. How much simpler to assume Milton growing to feel that, in English verse, two unaccented syllables may, in any part of the line, stand in place of one, and that the only limit to the use of such variations is in the approval of the poet's own ear, its one needed justification the acceptance of these rhythms by a poet's audience.

Waiving our objections to the author's expression of his method, we find in his monograph the evidence of close, thorough, and sympathetic study of Milton's usage in verse, of keen insight, and of the most sensitive and delicate feeling for the finer and almost inappreciable shades of Milton's best effects. The lines on page 29, contrasted with the examples previously cited from Milton, demonstrate a real distinction between the variant lines in Milton and apparently identical variants in Shakspere, and the author appears to have proved his point, that the difference is not fortuitous, but due to a conscious intention in Milton to limit himself in such variation far more than did Shakspere. In the treatment of this matter some of the utterances are noteworthy, as on page 65: "'Liquid elisions' were adopted by Milton to the exclusion of others, not only because they pleased his ear, but because he knew why they did so"; and on page 68: "And Milton wrote much more carefully than he has been criticised."

The "rules" set forth in the first part, on 'Paradise Lost,' and those in appendix J, I., are in general just and likely to stimulate, if hardly to guide, a student or an independent investigator; in particular, they seem scarcely rules to be honored. Those in the first part are concerned less with the general structure of blank verse than with the minutiæ of its subtler variations. Those in appendix J, in so far as they set forth facts, are unimpeachable, but by no means to be subscribed to in respect to their interpretations of facts. Rule II. in this appendix is wholly good and very well expressed; those which follow are more likely to benefit a reader by clarifying his ideas as he explains to himself why he disagrees with them, than to help him as guides for the comprehension and interpretation of verse structure.

We cannot too much decry Mr. Bridges's conviction (Rules III. to VII.) that the metrical units of English are identical with the phrasing of its words considered as prose. Thoroughly in accord he seems with Mr. Stone, who calls attention to the conflict between foot stress and word accent in Greek and Latin metres; he appears to agree that some such feature should be recognized in English verse. Yet he totally ignores the much more important, more insistent requirement in classic metres that the words or phrases must not coincide with the feet. Mr. Bridges appears to be quite right, and seems original, in the idea that, in any system of notation for the scansion of English verse, the symbol for accent should appeal to the eyes more strongly than the symbols for quantity. This he sets forth on pages 77, 89, and 97. Otherwise, his system has nothing to recommend it. We cannot avoid deploring the universal habit of writers on versification: each must needs devise for his subject a new notation and a new nomenclature, partial or total. This seems never necessary, and generally ill-advised. In what he has to say of the pauses in blank verse, Mr. Bridges, apparently with some reason, prefers to the familiar classic term "cæsura" the word "break," as carrying no false connotation. His treatment of this subject is beautifully compact and sensible.

Of the observations scattered through the book some are well worth quoting. We find on page 30:

"It is easy to see how the far-sought effects of the greatest master in any art may be beyond the general taste—in rhythm this is specially the case; while almost everybody has a natural liking for the common fundamental rhythms, it is only after long familiarity with them that the ear grows dissatisfied, and wishes them to be broken; and there are very few persons indeed who take such a natural delight in rhythm for its own sake, that they can follow with pleasure a learned rhythm which is very rich in variety, and the beauty of which is its perpetual freedom to obey the sense and diction."

And on page 43:

"Poetry would be absurd which was always mimicking the diction or the sense; but that is a different thing from matter and form being in live harmonious relation."

Very interesting is the comment on Milton's twelve-syllable lines. Mr. Bridges appears, without realizing it, to have made a discovery. At least, we do not know of any one among Milton's editors or commentators who has called attention to the same facts in exactly the same way. He says on page 39 (the italics are ours):

"It is usually considered that this line (sometimes called an Alexandrine) must have a break or cæsura in the middle, between the sixth and seventh syllables. It is best known in this form, and the break is commonly so well marked that in free unrhymed verse it is indistinguishable from a pair of six-syllable lines. The characteristic of Milton's twelve-syllable line is his neglect of this break, and he makes a verse which has a strong unity in itself, and no tendency to break up. In fact, he allows himself the same liberty of cæsura or break in this as in his ten-syllable verse; yet his Alexandrine is almost more coherent, *as if it were composed expressly to counteract its tendency to divide in two.*"

Then he cites, from the Nativity Ode,

"She strikes a universal peace through land and sea"

with

"While birds of calm sit brooding on the charmed wave"

and

"Swindges the scaly horror of his folded tail."

These lines, if read with their natural accent, phrasing, and intonation, are clearly not Alexandrines. It might be conceivable that Milton wrote this kind of line unconsciously as a spontaneous variant on the Alexandrine, having hit it off by ear and repeating it from unreflecting liking for it. In the face of Mr. Bridges's careful examination of all Milton's twelve-syllable lines such a view is impossible; and, from his observations quoted above, it is quite obvious that these lines are not Alexandrines at all, nor variants on the Alexandrine, but accentual analogues of the Greek tragic iambic trimeter. It would appear also strongly probable that Milton, who was for his time a deep student of classical metres, wrote these lines consciously and intentionally. The characteristics of the classic tragic verse appear even more clearly in the line of 'Samson Agonistes' cited on page 42:

"Or do my eyes misrepresent, can this be he?"

We do not like at all Mr. Bridges's system of expressing his ideas on versification. His distinction between syllabic verse and stressed verse seems to us purely fanciful; on the other hand, his feeling for the structure of the verse he analyzes is worthy of the highest praise. Take, for example, what he says, on pages 98, 99, of certain effects in Shelley's "Sensitive Plant." We disagree wholly with his interpretation of them, but how much we respect his adequate perception of the facts! Still more do we admire what he says on pages 103, 104, of Shelley's stanzas beginning,

"Away, the moor is dark beneath the moon."

Mayor, in the recent second edition of his chapters on English verse, laboriously scans these lines, but fails to get any inkling of the type of their structure. Mr. Bridges equally misses the close analogy of their rhythm with that of those classic metres (the diiambic and pæonic) which would at once explain their movement; and yet he apprehends this movement perfectly.

Mr. Stone has passed out of sound of all criticisms. From strictures we forbear. Lest, however, his well-meant words so beautifully printed may mislead the unwary, we cannot omit saying that his essay seems to us the negligible utterance of an individual as entirely wrong-headed as he was transparently sincere. What the British universities can produce in the way of serene disregard of those facts of classical criticism which German investigation, to the satisfaction of all scholars everywhere, has established beyond cavil or peradventure, may be viewed upon pages 142, 143. We find there the facts concerning accent in ancient Greek, as long ago accepted by the consensus of the world's classical scholars, placidly brushed aside with an "I regard this view . . . to be altogether misleading," and an "I affirm with confidence." For whatever is good in

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Mr. Stone's paper we are quite ready to give credit to himself. Not upon him rests any blame for his misconceptions, but upon a strange combination of reverence for a local view, and conservatism towards a tradition which was in itself a mere guess at its origin, with a calm indifference to the unimpeachable deductions of the world's foremost investigators which have thrown such a flood of light on the verities of classic verse structure.

A POOR HISTORY OF NEW JERSEY.

New Jersey, as a Colony and as a State, One of the Original Thirteen. By Francis Bazley Lee. Associate Board of Editors, William S. Stryker, LL.D., William Nelson, A.M., Garret D. W. Vroom, Ernest C. Richardson, Ph.D. Four volumes. Illustrated. New York: The Publishing Society of New Jersey. 1902.

The share of the Board of Editors in the preparation of these volumes has probably been a small one. Adjutant-General Stryker, upon whom Princeton University conferred the degree of doctor of laws for his historical writings, and who was the leading authority in the State upon the history of the Revolutionary period, died late in 1900. The proofs of the four volumes, according to the preface, "have been carefully read" by Messrs. Vroom and Nelson, but it would be charitable to infer that their labors have been advisory, if not perfunctory, and upon Mr. Lee's shoulders must be placed the responsibility for a work which is uneven, and often superficial, and which, upon the whole, in spite of evident enthusiasm and a certain capacity for historical research in limited fields, is disappointing and unsatisfactory. It is at its best in those portions which record the simple annals of a neighborhood; at its worst in the attempts to give philosophical treatment to broader aspects.

An example of the author's not infrequent tendency to draw a sweeping conclusion from an unrelated premise is given on page 187, volume i., where he says:

"It was the rule of the Society of Friends to 'marry in meeting'; that is, the union of a Quaker and a Presbyterian or Episcopalian was not only discountenanced, but was absolutely forbidden, to the degree of religious and social ostracism. Thus it was that a wealthy member of the Society, having a daughter, sought to unite her in marriage to some worthy young man of another land-owning family and join the two estates."

Here are recorded two separate statements, the first of which will be conceded and the second not seriously questioned, since it has been the habit of thrifty parents everywhere to marry their children as well as possible; but the last statement is no more to be drawn from the first than is the first from the last.

Elsewhere the author asserts that the Quakers looked upon marriage as a civil contract, not as a religious institution; and again on page 322, volume i., he reiterates his belief that the Quaker did not consider marriage as a divine sacrament. In these repeated assertions Mr. Lee contradicts the Quaker authorities themselves, simply because he has failed to understand the Quaker attitude towards what Friends consider the interference of a priesthood. In 'Friends in the Seventeenth Century,' by Dr. Charles Evans (Philadelphia, 1875), the true attitude of Friends upon this question is made plain in the following sentence (p. 262): "As Friends believed marriage was an ordinance of God, they held that He alone could rightly join any therein, and that the intervention of a priest or minister was not only uncalled for, but added nothing to the sacredness of the marriage covenant." The same authority also discusses marriage as a civil contract, the Friends regarding the bond from both points of view. George Fox declared that "it was God who joined man and woman before the fall. . . . It is God's joining that is the right and honorable marriage, but never any priest did marry any that we read of in the Scriptures from Genesis to Revelations" (see the Journal of George Fox).

On page 187, volume i., in attempting to point out a fundamental distinction between the people of East Jersey and those of West Jersey the author says, "The most characteristic feature of the economic development of West Jersey was the establishment of a land-owning class. Whether or not this was designed will probably never be known, but certain it is that those who had money or ready credit invested heavily, as the records show, in real estate"; and further on he speaks of land ownership as an indication of wealth. The truth is that, at the outset, land had an insignificant money value. The settlers and their descendants gradually created wealth from the soil, but as their wants were few and there was little variety of personal property, the profits of agriculture were invested in additional land, which in turn became a source of revenue; the process keeping pace with the development of consumers in villages and towns. There were, of course, families in West Jersey whose members were superior in ability, in character, in substance, and in education to the unlettered, simple-minded tradesmen, small farmers, and farm hands about them; but Mr. Lee's desire to set up a landed aristocracy in West Jersey outruns his facts. The teaching of the Friends was so largely ethical—conduct for seven days in the week was so important an element in their theological theory—that there was great uniformity in deportment and address. Besides, few Friends were needy, and the Quakers stoutly maintained that the individual was much, the station in life little. All this was opposed to an aristocracy; and although the author insists more than once that there was in West Jersey such an aristocracy, similar to that of Virginia, he nowhere presents the facts to sustain his view. The chapter on "Old Homes and Old Names" in volume iii., where the reader would naturally look for such evidence, is a mere roster of names, mostly of honest country folk in whose democratic simplicity of life and bearing there was certainly little of the aristocrat.

Another instance of the author's habit of over-statement is found on page 201, volume i., where, in writing of the redemptioners, he says: "Once in the hands of a new master, the life of the redemptioner was more distasteful than that of the slave." The services of the redemptioner were sold for a limited number of years to pay for his passage across the ocean. In the beginning the transaction was a voluntary one on the part of the redemptioner. Later, when vessels became so crowded that the passenger's personal belongings, his chest holding his clothing, and often his money, were left behind at the place of embarkment, the transaction became an involuntary one. It need not be pointed out that the situation of the slave was very different. Moreover, the redemptioner enjoyed the hope of marrying the daughter of the colonial who purchased his services, and the opportunity was so frequently improved—every community where redemptioners were found offering examples of such marriages—that in those early times, where an employer and employed, purchaser and redemptioner, labored side by side, ate at the same table and lived the same life, it is apparent that there was no sharp social distinction between the family and the "help," who so often subsequently became a member of the family by marriage. Mr. Lee says the redemptioner seldom aspired so high as to a seat in the New Jersey Legislature. As a matter of fact, well-known examples of redemptioners who rose to high station were Matthew Thornton, signer of the Declaration of Independence, and Charles Thomson, Secretary of the Continental Congress.

On page 195 of the same volume, the author has thought it worth while to record that sanitary plumbing, window screens, and bath-tubs were unknown to the New Jersey colonist, and declares that "in all cases the houses were without conveniences," meaning that they were without the conveniences of to-day. The conveniences of their time and locality of course they had. Of minor errors may be mentioned the reference to Anthony Wayne, page 180, volume ii., where he is called Col. Wayne. The time referred to is 1778. Wayne became a brigadier-general in the previous year. The inscription under the picture of the old inn at Haddonfield declares that "in this hotel the Continental Congress held many sessions." While the Legislature met in the hotel, and the Council of Safety was there organized, there is no foundation for the assertion that the Continental Congress ever sat there. The building represented on page 122, volume iv., was not the New Jersey building at the Centennial Exposition of 1876, as the book asserts. There is often marked inadequacy of statement. On page 285, in the same volume, it is declared that in Mount Holly, "before the opening of the civil war, two fire companies, an insurance company, and water, gas, and telegraph companies had been organized." When it is known that one of the existing fire companies was organized in the eighteenth century, and that the water company was one of the first in the United States, the vagueness of the phrase "before the civil war" is better appreciated. Elsewhere, on page 299, the author declares that at Lawrenceville is one of the three leading preparatory schools in the United States. Where are the other two?

The work has been written in a series of monographs, each chapter being supposedly complete in itself so far as the topic of which it treats is concerned. The method is not without its disadvantages. Thus, we are given in the first volume chapters on "The Beginnings of Transportation" and "Ordinaries, Inns, and Taverns," which are related subjects, separated by three chapters upon other topics. The chapters on

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"The Steamboat Monopoly" and "New Jersey's First Railroad Charter" are in another volume, and "The Days of Camden and Amboy" in still another. Again, the reader is brought back to the subject of taverns in a chapter on "Social Conditions at the Close of the Century" in volume ii. Volume i. relates to the colony, volume ii. to the Revolution, and volume iii. to the first half of the last century, while volume iv. brings the narrative down to the present time. If the last volume had been omitted altogether, which, in view of its bare recital of commonplace facts to be gathered from almanacs and newspapers, might well have been done; and if the general discussion of national politics and national questions indulged in on every occasion had been curtailed, and the thinnest of the chapters on State topics had been cut down, the work would have been far less bulky, and at the same time there would have been room for an adequate account of the battle of Monmouth in place of the present meagre references to that contest. In connection with one phase of this battle the author names two gallant American soldiers, but fails to mention the real hero of the episode, Col. Nathaniel Ramsay of the Maryland Line, who thrust one British dragoon through the body with his sword, before being shot at close range, in his effort to fulfil his promise made to Gen. Washington that he would hold the position until troops could be brought up, or die in the attempt. Curiously enough, neither in the list of Princeton graduates, among whom both brothers are to be numbered, or elsewhere, is there any reference to Col. Ramsay's brother, Dr. David Ramsay, the "Father of American History," whose account of the war for Independence, including the New Jersey campaigns, still remains, after more than a century, one of the best, as it is one of the most authoritative, historical narratives of the war. However, Mr. Lee has concerned himself little with literature relating to the State, although Henry Armitt Brown's address at Burlington, Andrew D. Mellick's "Story of an Old Farm," and Isaac Mickle's "Reminiscences of Old Gloucester" were models of what his own work should have been.

The many curious facts recorded in the first volumes, such as the manufacture of wampum in New Jersey as late as the year 1860; the organization by the Dutch of a church at Bergen in 1660, the oldest church in the State; the establishment at the same place by the same race of people in 1664 of the first school in the State; the Loyalist record of Shrewsbury (an English settlement); the facts relating to the exercise of their right to vote by the women of New Jersey under the Constitution of 1776; even a number of meritorious chapters like those relating to slavery, currency, and counterfeiting, only serve by contrast to deepen regret that a work so good in part should be marred by imperfections so obvious.

Of the marginal illustrations in color scattered profusely through the volumes, many are without any special relevancy, and a number of nameless ones were inserted, apparently merely in order that the page should have a picture. The engravings of portraits of distinguished Jerseymen are more dignified in character and more in keeping with the kind of historical work which these volumes aim to be, but fall short of being.

Disciples of Æsculapius. By Sir Benjamin Ward Richardson, M.D., F.R.S. With portraits and illustrations. E. P. Dutton & Co. 2 vols., 8vo, pp. 827.

The cables of thought that run through human history connect one era with another, although few of their strands maintain prolonged continuity. Generally, the threads that bind one stage of social and intellectual development with the preceding are replaced later by others of different hue and texture, so that, in tracing backward a particular science, course of study, or doctrine, one may be surprised to find how completely its fundamental concept has been changed, and sometimes to learn that minds whose main distinction was in other realms could be claimed as originally of the one in question. For instance, John Keats was a medical student, and had practically no other education or occupation; not that he advanced medicine by his genius, but medicine seems to have given occasional tone and illustration to his thoughts. The philosopher, John Locke, author of the fundamental Constitution which the Proprietors of 1663 attempted to use in Carolina, and of the 'Essay concerning Human Understanding,' was an Oxford bachelor of medicine, and in his earlier years a successful practitioner, who never wholly discarded professional interest.

From the writings of the late Sir B. W. Richardson, himself an active-minded man, especially concerned with preventive medicine, are here collected more than forty addresses commemorative of men who, in one way or another, contributed to or were connected with medical science. Not all of them were physicians, but all were interested in modes of right living, and nearly all in the cure or the prevention of disease, or in discovery and public service bearing directly upon the prolongation of human life. These two volumes of essays are intelligent and interesting studies of great men, and present in most instances details little known, except to scholars in biography. They are discriminating reports of worthies who have placed the world in debt, although much of that has passed by the lapse of time into the outlawry of oblivion; and they make up a compendium convenient for reference and sufficiently complete for the pleasure and advantage of many writers and more readers. The papers are not arranged chronologically, nor by subject, and they run from the birth of French surgery and of modern anatomy to our own times. The acute and outspoken Willis, the learned and successful Sydenham, Paré courageous and devout, Black and Priestley, Rush and Wiseman, Digby and Browne, are among those passed in kindly but sagacious review.

The student reviewing the last three centuries of medicine will find here illustrations of its incidental interlacings with many kindred lines of study, and an interesting collective exhibition of modes of thought, as well as of achievement in different periods. For reading and for reference this compilation is equally appropriate for private collections and public libraries.

The Contendings of the Apostles: The Ethiopic Texts, now first edited from Manuscripts in the British Museum, with an English Translation, by E. A. Wallis Budge, M.A., Litt. D., D. Lit., F.S.A. Vol. II. The English Translation. Henry Frowde. 1901. Pp. xvi, 736.

Among the most important legacies to us from the gnostic sects of the early Christian centuries have been various apocryphal acts, preachings, and martyrdoms of the apostles. These were taken over in self-defence by the Catholic Church, purged mostly of their heretical doctrines and allusions, and have reached us in this modified form. Apart from their value for the history of the popular ideas and beliefs of the early Church, they are of high interest for sociology and folk-lore. One group of these apostolic legends, known as the "Contendings of the Apostles," appears, according to the researches of Guidi, to have assumed form under the Patriarchate of Alexandria. The earliest traces are in Sahidic Coptic, but in that language only fragments so far have been found. From Coptic, as the language of the people changed, it was rendered into Arabic, and of the collection in that form we possess several manuscripts. This translation must have been made in the second half of the thirteenth century, and marks a new period in the history of these stories, coinciding, apparently, with a literary and religious revival in the Alexandrian patriarchate itself. From Arabic a translation was finally made into Ethiopic, but not earlier than the first half of the fourteenth century. Thus, at last, these half-wearisome, half-weird tales reached the Abyssinian Church. No other church has given them so free an entrance among its sacred books; elsewhere, they have ranked as religious novels, a cross between 'Robert Elsmere' and 'The Prince of the House of David'—the one on the gnostic, the other on the Catholic side; there, they have lacked little of full canonicity. Perhaps, then, it was fitting that this, their most complete attiring in a European garb, should be by passage from the language which had proved most hospitable to them. From every other point of view an edition and translation of the Arabic version, in the lack of complete Coptic manuscripts, would have been more desirable. The Ethiopic is only another remove from the lost original, and adds little or no interest of its own.

Dr. Budge in this volume makes no reference to the industrious S. C. Malan, who anticipated him in the greater part of his work with a translation published in 1871. Without doubt, however, his own is more literal and elaborate, and has been made from fuller manuscripts. The version in itself certainly suggests conscience and care. The unwieldy sumptuousness of the form is due to the munificence of the late Marquess of Bute. A fuller introduction and commentary would have raised higher gratitude in us than the present heavy paper and more than ample margins. As it is, the student must take refuge with Lipsius and Guidi.

Church Building: A Study of the Principles of Architecture in their Relation to the Church. By Ralph Adams Cram. Boston: Small, Maynard & Co.

The greater part of this volume first reached the public in a series of articles in the columns of the *Churchman.* They were

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of real value, and it is proper that they should assume the more permanent form of a book. That ecclesiastical architecture in America is on a lower plane than secular is a proposition not likely to meet denial, and any book which helps great numbers of people to see this and to wish for better things, is to be warmly welcomed. Mr. Cram's criticism is not merely destructive. He is not content with pointing out the defects of our average church and the tastelessness of its fittings. He tells us how things should be done. He gives us plans and pictures showing how they have been, and may again be, properly done.

He covers a wide field, starting with the village chapel and ending with the cathedral. On the first page he strikes the keynote of his treatise. "Let us remember this: when we build here in America we are building for now, we are manifesting the living Church." "It is the present that demands us—the immutable Church existing in times of the utmost mutability. We must express the Church that is one through all ages; but also we must express the endless changes of human life, the variation of environment. This is church architecture." He plunges at once into the question of how most wisely to spend the small sum usually at the command of a rural population, and shows so clearly what to avoid and what to strive for, that the wonder is that the right thing, seeming so simple, is not oftener done. The problem, as he puts it, is "to build a shelter for the altar and congregation, together with such adjuncts as are necessary, for the smallest cost consistent with honesty, durability, dignity, and reverence." Then follows the analysis of plan, its length and width, its way of seating the people, its provision for service; next, the materials and the ways of working them, and then the outcome of all this in the expression of the building. The summation comes at the end of the chapter: "Build in stone or brick; plan with rigid simplicity; design both exterior and interior with reserve, formality, and self-control; have the mass simple, the composition equally so; imitate no form or detail of larger structures, but work for the dignity and reverence that are theirs."

Mr. Cram's English is nothing if not vigorous, his opinions nothing if not positive. Could every member of every church-building committee be made to read, mark, learn, and inwardly digest this book, great would be the gain for decent, honest, straightforward architecture.

The Development of Cabinet Government in England. By Mary Taylor Blauvelt. Macmillan Co. 1902.

It is not an easy task to write of cabinet government, with Bagehot's brilliant essays illuminating the subject so clearly as they do. Yet it is one of the defects of such genius as his that it is dazzling; our eyes do not penetrate the nooks and corners left in shadow. This book is adapted to remedy these defects. It does not offer a philosophical explanation of the necessity of a cabinet, or of something homologous, in all governments; perhaps it would be more effective had more been attempted in that direction. What it does is to show how the cabinet came into existence, and how its powers came to increase. To attain this result, the author appears to have carefully examined the records, of all descriptions, which throw light on the subject.

Few monarchs have had the ability to conceive and carry out a policy. Every human being, indeed, whether king or subject, must act through agents in any considerable enterprise. A strong king may rule his ministers; a weak one will be ruled by them. In England the Tudor sovereigns were capable enough to rule without depending on Parliament. The Stuarts were incapable rulers, and their ministers exasperated the country so that Parliament became powerful. The folly of James II. was so extreme as to destroy the monarchy and make Parliament supreme. When the Stuarts were driven out, loyalty went with them. Some figure-head was of course necessary; the name of monarchy had to be preserved. But it was ridiculous to expect loyalty to the first Georges. The Whig aristocracy had to maintain them, and did so by making Parliament the governing body. But loyalty is a sentiment, and is no more to be made to order than religious feeling, and it was a century before the Tories really accepted the Hanoverian line as ruling *de jure*.

Long before this century was completed, Parliament had grasped the reins of power too firmly to be disturbed. It had the whole of the reigns of George I. and George II. in which to develop its system of government. The great Whig houses chose the members of Parliament, and gradually those members turned the direction of affairs over to a committee. That committee, for deferential reasons, was represented as a council of the King, and George III. was able to control it at times. But neither he nor any later sovereign has been supported by the sentiment of loyalty to any such extent as to make it practicable to overthrow Parliament. The details of the process that we have outlined are well worked out in this book, which deserves to be classed among histories of substantial merit.

Essais sur le Mouvement Ouvrier en France. Par Daniel Halévy. Paris: Georges Bellais. 1901. Pp. 300.

But for the new edition of Mr. Rae's 'Contemporary Socialism' these essays would have an almost unique value as a review of the recent progress of the labor movement in France. As it is, while Mr. Rae's chapters treat the subject in a more familiar way, M. Halévy's book is by far the most comprehensive discussion of it that has fallen under our eye, without being a plea for any party. One of the three essays is primarily historical, and traces the growth of French trades-unionism. The second deals with some social-economic aspects of the labor movement, such as co-operation and university extension; the third with the political activity of the unions. While M. Halévy is in sympathy with the general principles of French trades-unionism, he fully concedes the bad results of it. The unions have had a hard fight to gain their footing, and recognition of them has come later than in England; but they seem to be rather more disposed to abuse their new privileges than are the English unions. For one thing, strikes are multiplying with alarming rapidity. Between 1870 and 1880, only 30,000 workmen were affected by strikes; but, from 1890 to 1895, 92,000 were out, and the total days of idleness were more than three times as numerous as from 1870 to 1880. From 1895-1899 a still further increase in time thus lost is observable, and statistics for 1900 show an aggregate of 216,530 strikers, with not less than 4,000,000 days of idleness. Strikes, too, are becoming more dangerous, since they are both more violent and more inclusive than they were formerly. From this state of things arises a desire to find a remedy for the strike. Some profess to find such a cure in conciliation and arbitration, and hence the discussion of certain plans patterned after the New Zealand system, none of which, however, have been seriously considered. On the whole, M. Halévy thinks trades-unionism, despite its bad features and its many sins, a needed support to workers whose welfare is endangered by the combinations of capital, and at the same time an aid to the state in its unequal contest against plutocracy.

Coöperation has made considerable progress, and the movement for popular education and improvement is still in the flush of first enthusiasm. French workmen are doing a good deal in the way of supporting one another, and are seeking greater adaptability to industrial change through scientific knowledge. The educational movement does not, however, neglect the humanities wholly; and though the English notion of culture is not readily grasped, a substitute for it is being developed even where it did not formerly exist at all. These hopeful symptoms of better social organization make it all the more unfortunate that unwise political action should have been attempted, and that the trades unions should have linked themselves with the Socialist cause. There is really no necessary connection between Socialism and the labor movement. Just how they have become associated in France, M. Halévy makes very plain—but this part of his story is by far the most familiar to English and American readers. Socialism, in his opinion, has not engendered class contests, but has changed their character for the better by making them more reflective and self-conscious. In this fact he sees the hope of the future—a society transformed not by warfare, as heretofore, but by economic changes directed toward a common object, the greatest happiness of the greatest number.

The weakest feature of M. Halévy's book is his failure to view the labor movement in its relation to capitalism. It is not only a social development, but is conditioned by its economic bearings as well. But this shortcoming is too common a vice with social theorists to be laid too heavily upon a single scapegoat.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Bangs, J. K. Uncle Sam, Trustee. Riggs Pub. Co. $1.75.
Besant, Sir Walter. Autobiography. Dodd, Mead & Co. $2.40.
Clewell, J. H. History of Wachovia in North Carolina. Doubleday, Page & Co. $3.
D'Avenel, G. Le Mécanisme de la Vie Moderne. Paris: Armand Colin. 4 fr.
Dendron, Bertram. The Man in the Moon. Bonnell, Silver & Co. 50 cents.
Dix, Dorothy. Fables of the Elite. R. F. Fenno & Co. $1.
Dunbar, P. L. The Sport of the Gods. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.
Field, T. M. Unpublished Letters of Charles Carroll of Carrollton. The United Catholic Historical Society.
Fisguill, Richard. Mazel. Chicago: Herbert S. Stone & Co.

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Fox, Emma A. Parliamentary Usage for Women's Clubs. The Baker & Taylor Co. 65 cents.
Frye, A. E. Grammar School Geography. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Hobbs, W. R. P., and Wormell, Richard. The Arithmetic of Electrical Measurements. New ed. London: Thomas Murby; New York: D. Van Nostrand Co. 50 cents.
Howell, George. Labour Legislation, Labour Movements, and Labour Leaders. London: T. Fisher Unwin; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $3.50.
Lair, Maurice. L'Impérialisme allemand. Paris: Armand Colin. 3 fr. 50.
Liddell, M. H. An Introduction to the Scientific Study of English Poetry. Doubleday, Page & Co. $1.25.
Mabie, H. W. Works and Days. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.
Maeterlinck, Maurice. The Buried Temple. (Translated by Alfred Sutro.) Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.40.
Marchmont, A. W. Sarita, the Carlist. Frederick A. Stokes Co. $1.50.
Olmstead, D. H. Reforms in Land Transfer. Burr Printing House.
Todd, C. B. The True Aaron Burr. A. S. Barnes & Co. 50 cents.
Van Bergen, R. The Story of China. American Book Co. 60 cents.
Warner, C. D. Fashions in Literature, and Other Literary and Social Essays and Addresses. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.20.
Waters, W. E. Petronius Cena Trimalchionis. Boston: Benj. H. Sanborn & Co.

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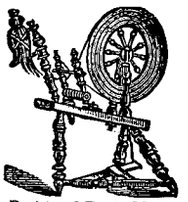

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